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COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS. RECOMMENDATIONS AND REPORT OF A SURVEY.

BY- PERKINS, JAMES A. AND OTHERS
NEW YORK STATE REGENTS ADV.COMM.ON EDUC.LEADERSHIP

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THIS REPORT PRESENTS THE RESULTS OF A STUDY UNDERTAKEN AT THE INVITATION OF THE REGENTS ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP. IT EXAMINES THE ROLE, ACTIVITIES, AND EFFECTIVENESS OF COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS IN NEW YORK STATE. THREE DIRECT APPROACHES (QUESTIONNAIRE, INTERVIEW, AND ACTIVITY LOG) AND TWO INDIRECT APPROACHES (PUBLICATIONS LISTING THE CHARACTERISTICS OF COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, THE BACKGROUNDS OF THEIR PRESIDENTS, AND OUTSIDE JUDGMENTS OF THE PRESIDENT'S OVERALL EFFECTIVENESS) WERE USED TO SECURE INFORMATION ABOUT THE WORK AND ATTITUDES OF THE PRESIDENTS. QUESTIONNAIRES WERE RECEIVED FROM 185 PRESIDENTS. INTERVIEWS WERE HELD WITH 31 OF THESE PRESIDENTS, AND ACTIVITY LOGS WERE RECEIVED FROM 24 OF THOSE INTERVIEWED. FOUR RELATED TOPICS CONCERNING THE PRESIDENTS ARE EXAMINED--(1) WHAT PRESIDENTS ACTUALLY DO ON THEIR JOBS, (2) THE PREPARATION AND CAREER PATTERNS OF COLLEGE PRESIDENTS, (3) THE EFFECTIVENESS OF PERFORMANCE IN THE POSITION, AND (4) HOW PRESIDENTS ARE RECRUITED AND SELECTED. RESULTS OF THE STUDY SHOW THAT THE PRESIDENTS OF COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES IN NEW YORK STATE ACCEPT LEADERSHIP AS THEIR FIRST RESPONSIBILITY, BUT THEIR REPORTS OF THEIR ACTIVITIES, ACCOMPLISHMENTS, AND PROBLEMS LEAVE DOUBTS ABOUT THEIR ABILITY AND THEIR OPPORTUNITY TO MEET THIS RESPONSIBILITY. SEVERAL RECOMMENDATIONS ARE MADE, BASED ON THE RESULTS OF THE STUDY. (HW)

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COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS

recommendations and report of a survey

new york state regents advisory

committee on educational leadership.

EA 001 053

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS

Recommendations and Report of a Survey

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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THE NEW YORK STATE REGENTS ADVISORY COMMITTEE
ON EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

CORNELL UNIVERSITY

ITHACA, NEW YORK

OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT

May 12, 1967

Chancellor Edgar W. Couper
Board of the Regents of the
University of the State of New York
2 Chenango Street
Binghamton, New York

Dear Dr. Couper:

Now that higher education is within the grasp of every competent New York student who wishes it, colleges and universities in the state must cope daily with problems engendered by rapidly growing enrollments and the need to maintain standards of academic excellence in the face of ever-increasing numbers of students. While imaginative and effective solutions are not easily forthcoming from any quarter, students, faculty, alumni, government administrators, and the general public are looking more and more frequently to the college and university president as a source of creative educational leadership and innovation. It is this intensification of presidential responsibility that the Regents Advisory Committee on Educational Leadership had in mind when this report on the college and university president, the fourth in a series on strengthening educational leadership in the State of New York, began to take shape.

The recommendations that follow are drawn from a study conducted by the Committee staff and discussions with college and university presidents, trustees, and other administrators. They are derived also from the Committee's general knowledge of the subject, and its members' thoughts and experiences.

We hope the report and study will stimulate all who lead New York's colleges and universities to re-examine the role of the president, assessing the priorities of the office in terms of the immediate and long-term goals of their particular institutions. We also suggest ways of recognizing, developing, and attracting capable administrative talent in hopes of increasing the numbers of gifted young men and women committed to educational leadership in New York State.

Respectfully submitted,

JAMES A. PERKINS, *Chairman,*
Regents Advisory Committee on
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COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS

RECOMMENDATIONS

THE REGENTS ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON
EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

INTRODUCTION

The widening responsibilities assumed by colleges and universities, together with their corresponding increases in size and complexity, make the task of presidential leadership more difficult and at the same time more essential than ever before. The Committee on Educational Leadership is concerned with the gap between the great need for effective leadership and the inadequate measures currently available for its improvement.

As the Committee sees it, the primary task of the college and university president is to exercise effective educational leadership. He must be a leader both within his institution and among all those concerned with higher education.

The president is the crucial link between trustees, administration and faculty. As the principal spokesman for his institution, he carries the major responsibility for the exposition of programs and policies. With the faculty's help he must try to secure acceptance of these programs by the various constituencies that make up his community. The basic demands, let alone the subtleties, involved in the exercise of leadership in such circumstances are rarely understood by an academic community and frequently are not appreciated by the fledgling president himself. Therefore, the most important assistance which could be provided to a prospective president would be the assurance of a better understanding by all concerned of the structure and dynamics of the modern college and university.

In order to make constructive suggestions for the improvement of presidential leadership, it is necessary to deal with a broad range of matters. Leadership involves both people and institutions, as well as the structure and procedures that allow the people to direct the institutions.

For this reason, the committee has sought to examine the presidency from several sides in the hope that our conclusions will be of interest and use to all who seek to improve the effectiveness and sensitivity of presidential leadership in higher education. As a result of the examination, the Committee on Educational Leadership is prepared to offer the following recommendations.

RECOMMENDATIONS

A. *The Organization of the Office of the President*

1. ***Every college and university should periodically review the functions of the office of the president to make sure that the president has delegated as much responsibility as is consistent with the continued exercise of effective leadership. A mechanism should be provided in the by-laws of the Board of Trustees to initiate and make such a review. The review should include a determination of the adequacy of staff required to discharge the tasks that cannot be delegated.***

Everyone knows that the responsibilities of the presidential office have increased and continue to increase. But colleges and universities have been slow to recognize that with increased responsibility must come changes in both the style and the organization of presidential activity. Presidents themselves have frequently been unmindful of the increased complexity of their jobs and have worked within the crushing restraints of inadequate help and a quaint do-it-yourself tradition. As a first step, presidents must come to realize that the office does not have to operate that way.

Once braced to modernize his office, the president will restructure his administrative life with his own strengths and weaknesses in mind—maximizing the former and supplementing the latter. As a general admonition we would point out that a new president may find that the time when it is easiest to make administrative change is early in his tour of duty. He should not wait until an accumulation of unpopular decisions trims his freedom to make major changes.

2. ***Each university or college should consider creating a position of high status to provide the president with a deputy who has broad authority and who is directly responsible to him.***

A deputy with appropriate title and status could assume full responsibility for the conduct of the affairs of the office of the president whenever it is necessary or desirable for the president to be absent. A capable deputy can also help the president by sharing with him much of the burden of the position during the time they are both present.

The status, title, authority, and responsibility of the deputy should be such that he is able to substitute for the president on many occasions, especially those concerned with the internal operation of the institution. At a large institution, there may be a need for two deputies,

one to handle internal operations, the other to specialize in the external functions of the university. At a small college, where a full-time deputy might be more difficult to justify, the academic dean might serve as a deputy. However, the potential dangers to the continuing necessity of curriculum improvement should be considered before resorting to such a dual role.

With a recognized and respected replacement on the scene, the president will have a ready alternate to serve for him on many occasions of importance to the institution and will also be able to absent himself from the demands of his office for sufficient periods of time to renew his physical and mental energies. A new president must recognize the physical and mental demands of his job.

Whatever the arrangement, the responsibility and authority delegated to the deputy should be clearly outlined, and when the deputy is not present, a replacement should be automatically available.

3. *In addition to his administrative responsibilities, the president must be encouraged to cultivate his own interests and talents. For those with scholarly interests it means time to read and write; for those with public interests it means time to participate in appropriate outside activities.*

The pressures of administration can turn the unsuspecting president into an organization man who may weed the academic garden but plant few bulbs. His élan and vitality will be nourished by participation in public affairs or intellectual realms untouched by his daily routine. Not only he but his institution will be the beneficiary.

Athough the president should avoid over-commitment to extracurricular affairs, his life should be organized so that he can continue to grow as a human being. He should be able not only to read, write, and carry out research, but even to teach and perhaps to take periodic leaves.

B. *The President's Working Relations*

It is the president's responsibility to explain the mission, policies, and programs of his institution. He must not, however, be a neutral factor in the balance of interests that make up the college or university. It is the essence of his art as academic leader both to represent the consensus and to help change it as new developments require new points of view.

1. *The president must secure the confidence and support of his trustees.*

The president has one duty he cannot delegate—continued and unremitting attention to his trustees both as individuals and as a group.

They must feel he is openly and honestly carrying out their policies. This requires continued presidential reporting. He must feel that they are conversant with his problems and those of their institution. This requires constant education.

To achieve these twin goals of education and confidence, the president must be open and frank. He must be candid in his appraisal of issues. A report of an occasional presidential failure may only increase trustee confidence in the generality of presidential activities. Presidents should remember that trustees hear so many enthusiastic reports from executives that their reporting of mistakes will not only engage the attention of trustees but will also engage sympathetic understanding.

The wise president will recognize the importance of developing individual relations with his trustees but will not permit these relations to become detours around official board-president channels of communication. He will wish to get his instructions from the board as a whole but he may receive much wise counsel from individual members. A board and a president who recognize this necessary discipline have established the basis for a satisfactory partnership and have laid the groundwork for successful presidential leadership.

2. *The president must play a key role in institutional fund-raising and in securing governmental understanding and support.*

Years ago it was common to say, "The board makes the money available for the president to spend." It is doubtful that many presidents have ever been able to escape responsibility for fund raising, whether from public or private sources. Certainly at the present time no president can dissociate himself from money-raising efforts, because the institution is often judged by its president and his view of institutional priorities. Although trustees and staff should accept much responsibility for fund-raising, even to the organization of campaigns, it is the president who must present the "case" for his institution. In addition, all major fund-raising projects conducted by other officials for the institution must be channeled through the president. Donors want to know that the institution, and not just an individual enthusiast, supports ideas and projects for which funds are being sought.

3. *The president should enlist the talents and influence of the alumni in support of the institution.*

Among the major donors to any institution are the alumni for whose continuing interest the president will have a large share of the responsibility. Whether the former student contributes to the institution or not, his understanding of its policies is essential, and the president must be alert for opportunities for clarification and interpretation

which will enhance the concern of the alumni for the institution even though it may have become a different institution from the one they knew. Alumni normally serve on Boards of Trustees. This contact is important but cannot take the place of presidential visits to groups of former students beyond the campus. In general, the new president may need to spend at least a year learning about the institution before he is presented to alumni groups whose knowledge of the institutional problems will in some cases be deeper than the new president's. When major changes in policy are contemplated, the president may wish to consult with alumni heads to inform them before releasing news to the press. The alumni are the national face of the institution and presidential relationship must, therefore, be exercised in this area as well as in the immediate field of the campus.

4. *A college or university cannot function unless the president and the faculty are able to develop constructive relations based on mutual understanding and respect. The president will have to secure this relationship as a matter of priority.*

The problems for the president are of two kinds—and both of them are at the heart of the delicate relations between president and faculty. The first involves questions of educational policy and management, and the second involves institutional concerns in which the faculty has a direct interest. In both these areas the president must handle himself with care and understanding.

With respect to educational matters the president must realize that he is dealing in an area of the faculty's primary interest. He must be able to meet the faculty on their own grounds when he becomes involved in educational issues; he cannot make his point on the basis of institutional authority. He can make his influence felt best by identifying those members of the faculty with important ideas and backing them. He can ask questions that require thoughtful answers. He can pose educational issues that require faculty attention. But his influence in particular cases must be muted although his presence should not be totally obscured. It is, to repeat, a delicate art.

When matters of institutional concerns are afoot, the president must also move with care. Buildings, parking, facilities, fraternities, and the proper role of inter-collegiate athletics in the institutional program are all the proper concern of a faculty. Here however, the responsibility is obviously shared with administration and trustees and consequently requires a different stance in the relationship. The decisions to spend money are properly administrative; how and when the money is spent will involve faculty participation. In these matters the president has a necessary role as planner and initiator—but a wise president will seek faculty advice and participation at every important step.

5. *The president should support and sometimes initiate educational ventures.*

Of all the issues with which a president must deal, perhaps none is so sensitive as the exercise of academic leadership with a faculty. Yet it is precisely the successful partnership of administration and faculty that will determine a great deal of the vitality and success of the educational enterprise. In this partnership the president, assisted by his colleagues, has an important role. He must play it with courage and discernment.

First of all, he must have some feeling for the large priority problems facing higher education generally. Chances are most of them apply to his own institution. If his prevoius experience has not provided this perspective, he should receive appropriate instruction from the key books and journals on higher education. He should also seek out foundation and association officers and elder statesmen who can advise him. The president must continue to press the college community to face up to the most important issues; that is his major assignment. But to do so, he must know what the issues are.

Then he must identify and seek out the critical components in the faculty of his own educational institution—those members of the staff with a strong institutional sense and an interest in educational policy. They will become his chief allies and healthy critics. He will not be able to function without them.

Finally, He must see that opportunities are created for appropriate kinds of discussion among students, faculty, administration, and board of trustees. This requires careful attention to the management of such conferences, the participation by the right persons, and the establishment of procedures for carrying out the results.

The president's role here is in part that of coordinator, who makes sure that the people who make decisions have the knowledge to make them. When he executes this task in a capable manner, the essential role of faculty as experts on instructional programs, as makers of standards, and as supporters of experimentation can be played effectively.

All this activity must take place in an environment of academic freedom to which the president must be visibly committed. If he falters on this front, the very basis of his influence will have been destroyed.

6. *The president should be personally involved in the selection of key faculty.*

The president may very well make his greatest impact on the future of his college or university by the care with which he monitors the process of faculty appointments. He should not leave this important function exclusively to departments or even to deans, especially in the

case of key appointments, for a department or college may become the prisoner of its own internal forces. This is the point at which he can assert interdisciplinary needs that do not always loom large in the eyes of departments and colleges. The president should be the person best able to view with detachment the requirements of his institution. Thus he should accept responsibility for strengthening important or weak areas by insisting both on priorities and on meticulous assessment of personnel with respect to well-conceived criteria.

7. *In shaping his relations with students, the president must develop a style that fits his own character and that of the institution over which he presides.*

For some presidents in some colleges this relationship can, of necessity, be relatively close and wide ranging. For other presidents and particularly those in larger universities direct contact will have to be more selective.

But in either stance every president must have a reasonably accurate view of the campus machinery that functions in the area of student affairs. He must be certain that it is working effectively. He should also have direct contact with student leaders and see that they believe they have direct access to him when they feel it necessary.

Today's presidents will find that working with student affairs will require far more understanding of student activities and attitudes than at any time in the recent past. The postwar period of student inertia has suddenly erupted into a period of student involvement in the affairs of the world. Civil rights, foreign policy, and the very purposes and policies of the university itself have become the proper concern of an increasing number of students everywhere. This eruption of student activism will present the president and faculty with some complicated matters; such activism requires that both president and faculty are able to balance understanding of student concerns with the necessity for protecting the integrity of the university.

There is no simple formula for successful handling of these complex matters. They will require the most careful consideration, by the whole academic community, of the tangled issues of the nature of the university as an open forum, the proper relations between university and society, and the limits of civil disobedience in a university framework. The nature and mission of the university is under intensive re-examination on all fronts, and the student has become an important factor in this re-examination.

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C. *Increasing the Quality and Visible Number of Presidential Candidates*

1. ***College and university presidents should normally be chosen from college and university ranks.***

Experience amply demonstrates that successful presidents are almost always drawn from academic life. Conversely, there are all too few instances of success when the president is chosen from other occupations. Since a college or university is a very complex and unique institution, those who have not been initiated into its subtleties and mysteries will very likely hurt either themselves or their institutions—or both. The study that served as background for this report showed a direct correlation between presidential effectiveness and previous academic experience. Trustees in search of a president should start with this premise.

2. ***Each college and university should create special opportunities for able younger faculty members to gain experience in the various aspects of academic administration.***

If academic administrators are to be drawn from academic ranks, it follows that colleges and universities must help to create a large pool of experienced persons from which future leaders of higher education can be drawn. Administrative staff should be sought both within the institution and outside of it.

Carefully conceived efforts are required to attract capable junior faculty to careers in academic administration. Those members of the faculty who show interest and aptitude for administrative work should be identified and given a chance to try their administrative wings as committee chairmen and eventually department heads. Occasionally a very competent young faculty member will display the qualifications to justify his appointment to a deanship, probably the best position in which to observe a potential president.

In addition there is a need for ways by which young administrative talent can achieve some regional or even national visibility. The "Young Administrators Travel Grants" program of the Carnegie Corporation, the intern program of the American Council on Education, and the Institute for College and University Administrators are effective instruments for the discovery of administrative talent.

3. ***The presidential office, as well as the other offices of academic administration in colleges and universities, should be made more attractive by improving understanding of the office, increasing salaries and benefits for administrators, and lightening the load of routine tasks.***

If the pool of potential presidental candidates is to be enlarged, the job must appear more interesting and more attractive to many of the ablest members of the academic community than it now does.

For reasons explained earlier in this report, candidates with desirable qualifications for administration often express no interest in administrative assignments because the presidents themselves appear either harried or bored. If our strictures on delegation of responsibility, staff, and outside activities are followed, the presidential eye will brighten and the tone of voice will audibly improve. This will have a positive effect on those who are capable of but dubious about the assignment.

D. *The Recruitment and Selection of Presidents*

Three recommendations concerning the selection of college presidents were made by the Committee as part of the result of a separate study of college and university trustees and trusteeships.*

1. ***The selection of a president should be preceded by a careful analysis of the needs of the college or university at that particular time in the institution's history and of the role to be expected of the new president, and by the development of specific criteria by which candidates will be screened.***

The criteria should consist of more than a mere listing of the weaknesses of the president's predecessor, however, and they should not be unduly restrictive. In drawing up a list of criteria the board should anticipate the possibility that the job may change radically while the president is in office, making him the wrong man if *he* does not change. Often the president must decide for himself what his institution needs at a particular time. He may identify needs different from those recognized by trustees when they selected him.

While the board is finally responsible for the analysis and for the resulting criteria, it should secure the suggestions of the faculty, the administration, and the alumni. The selection of a president should be approached by the board in a spirit of cooperation with those groups that are properly interested.

The Committee suggests, for example, that the board consult with the faculty, via committee or otherwise, throughout the process. Such consultations should provide information to the board that represents the best judgment of the faculty and, in addition, should convey information to the faculty about the great diversity of considerations (some

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* See *College and University Trustees and Trusteeship*, New York State Regents Advisory Committee on Educational Leadership, for a more complete discussion of the role of the Board of Trustees.

of which may not be understood by many faculty members) that must govern the selection of a president. Cooperation between the board and a faculty committee should be informal and intimate.

2. *The board should seek nominations from all appropriate sources.*

Since the pool of talent from which a president may be chosen must be as large as possible, the board alone cannot be personally acquainted with all possible candidates. Therefore, it should seek the assistance of many responsible individuals and groups, especially those who may have a close acquaintance with the institution, in securing the names of likely nominees. Due care should be taken not to overlook possible local candidates; too often outsiders are chosen when the best prospect may have been a local dean or professor.

3. *After a selection has been made, the board should arrange immediately to review and make a record of the process just completed.*

A review and careful record will lead to improvements in the method when the next selection is made. Furthermore, careful assessment of the selection process can yield insights about the reputation and status of the institution and its ability to attract superior leadership.

In addition to repeating these three recommendations from the Committee's study previously mentioned, two additional recommendations are made.

4. *The final selection of a new president by the board should be based on a deliberate process of attempting to find a match between the qualities of prospective candidates and the needs of the particular institution, as determined at the outset of the selection process.*

Candidates differ in experience and in talents. Institutions of higher learning are not static; therefore, needs vary. A person who might fit perfectly during one period in the history of an institution may be unsuitable at another time. In short, the essential task is to match carefully the strengths of candidates with the anticipated requirements of the institution.

The ultimate choice of a president is improved if thorough (and possibly on-the-ground) investigation is made of how each prospective candidate has performed in other similar assignments. Success in unrelated occupations, it has already been said, is less likely to provide the basis for sound predictions.

5. *The recruitment process should provide the serious candidate ample time to acquaint himself with the demands, requirements, and potential of the position for which he is being considered.*

Presidents have often been recruited in a manner which has not given them a chance to learn about the duties and responsibilities of the position for which they were being considered. The recruitment and selection process should provide candidates sufficient opportunity, both formal and informal, to achieve this level of understanding. Most individuals possessing qualifications that would make them serious candidates for the presidency have the ability to analyze their own strengths and weaknesses against the demands of a specific position and to reject offers of positions for which they realize they are not suited.

E. *The Induction of New Presidents*

1. *A newly selected president should be encouraged to visit similar institutions.*

Experienced administrators have commented that, contrary to the opinion of many persons, the crucial issues faced by one president are very similar to those faced by other presidents. The new president who is privileged to visit a number of institutions will learn, to his relief, that his problems are not unique. If his institution has international commitments, he should be able to learn about these through travel to the appropriate countries. The new president will return with greater confidence and insight.

2. *The newly selected president should allocate time for informal contacts with trustees, faculty, students, and alumni prior to induction.*

There is a special advantage in a leisurely orientation to a new presidency. A president-elect, before he takes office, may raise questions and elicit information in a more relaxed manner before the day-to-day management of the office is assumed. These informal sessions should be of incalculable aid to the new president in gaining a better understanding of the institution and in setting priorities for his administration.

The early contact with faculty and students is of special importance. The new president may need to consider how to bring the faculty into closer touch with administrative problems, for example, through faculty observation of or even membership on the board of trustees. The president will also be able to note the character of the student body and to formulate ideas about meeting student needs. Perhaps most im-

portant, he will have time to listen to questions from both faculty and students and thus be able to define the problems with which he will eventually be confronted.

3. *A newly selected president should continue his self-development through the planned interchange of information and experience with other presidents, especially those with more experience.*

Many presidents have reported that they have found association with presidents of other institutions to be very valuable to them in gaining insights into the problems they were facing. The less structured such relations are, the more valuable they are likely to be.

F. What New York State can do to Assist Presidents

1. *The State Education Department should sponsor an annual orientation session for new presidents to explain the New York State system and the services which the State Education Department offers.*

Each session conducted in seminar fashion should be focused on a particular element of presidential leadership. Topics chosen should be consistent with the needs of the time. Expenses of the presidents should be paid by the State Education Department.

2. *A major center for the study of administration in higher education, for professional education in academic administration, and for assistance to presidents and trustees should be established at one of the major universities within the state.*

A center of this type would investigate the problems confronting the college or university president, the alternatives available to him in dealing with these problems, and the results of the decisions which such administrators make.

The center might also provide a program of professional education for both present and future academic administrators and offer the services of experts to colleges and universities that are facing critical problems. Among the studies demanding the attention of the center are several suggested by previous recommendations. These include the development of more rational procedures for recruitment and selection of college presidents, the examination of the functions of offices in the organization of an institution, the investigation of more effective means of preparing academic administrators, the study of ways to provide services to boards of trustees, and the development of particular kinds of expert advice on major institutional problems, such as updating curricula, administrator-faculty relationships, building pro-

grams, budgeting, public relations, and fund raising.

Studies of such a wide range of problems in higher education administration can only be efficiently undertaken at a major university which has the necessary resources.

AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK

JOHN K. HEMPHILL
HERBERT J. WALBERG
Educational Testing Service

July, 1966

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John K. Hemphill
Herbert J. Walberg

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY

The Purpose of the Study

This report presents the results of a study undertaken at the invitation of the Regents Advisory Committee on Educational Leadership. It examines the role, activities, and effectiveness of college and university presidents in the State of New York. Since these presidents are expected to exert an increasing influence in shaping the purposes and directions of higher education, it is hoped that an examination in depth of how contemporary presidents cope with educational problems will provide a framework which will be useful in identifying, training, and evaluating their successors.

Numerous earlier studies of the college presidency have relied heavily upon historical and biographical evidence. The present study emphasizes an empirical approach and complements previous work by providing objective, quantitative information about the presidents and their activities. In recent years, similar empirical studies have been made of the problems of educational leadership and administration at other levels. These have contributed to a better understanding of the unique problems of educational leadership. They also have stimulated the development of useful theories. It is hoped that this study will provide a meaningful frame of reference for developing future leadership in higher education.

There are several reasons why it is important to study the role and the work of the college president. First, colleges and universities are growing rapidly in number, size, and function. This growth is a response to a clear recognition of the importance of higher education in our society as well as to an expanding population. Second, the growth of institutions of higher education—in number and size—is accompanied by new problems concerning curricula, academic freedom, inadequate finances, questionable leadership, student protest, faculty recruitment, and the utilization of physical facilities. Not only are institutions of higher learning being forced to expand, but their functions are being challenged, re-examined, and enlarged in ways which add to the complexity of the responsibilities of the office of the president. Third, the president, more than any other single person, is called upon to resolve inevitable conflicts or issues, such as local autonomy vs. government control, the demands on the faculty for high standards of research and scholarship vs. the need for effective teaching, and the demands of one subgroup of the faculty vs. those of another.

A study of the role, the work, and the attitudes of presidents who are currently facing these problems may provide guidance in planning for higher education of the future.

This study examines a number of related questions. First, it looks at what presidents actually do on their jobs. How do they spend their time? How do they view their role? What are the pressures and influences they encounter in the functions to which they direct their attention? How do they manage their relationships with their governing bodies, faculties, administrative staff, and outside organizations? Second, this study considers questions that center on the preparation and career patterns of college presidents. What previous experiences have presidents had? What are the career routes to the college presidency? What is the value of various kinds of preparation and experience? Third, the study seeks to assess effectiveness of performance in the position. How can we distinguish effective from ineffective performance of presidents? What factors determine effectiveness? What satisfactions do presidents derive from their work? What does the president find most rewarding about his position? What are its most tiresome aspects? How do presidents maintain enthusiasm for their work? Finally, consideration is given to how presidents are recruited and selected. What do the presidents think of the present system? How could the selection process be improved?

The Plan of the Study

The study was designed to secure a standard body of information from all the presidents of institutions of higher education in the State of New York. Each president received a questionnaire consisting of 98 multiple-choice items. Since it was recognized that multiple-choice questions could not completely reflect the complexity of many issues, 32 presidents, chosen as representative of the whole group, were interviewed to provide additional information that would aid in interpreting questionnaire responses.

To extend and validate the information reported on the questionnaire and during the interview, an activity log was maintained by the president's secretary for one week. This log provided a report about how each president actually spent a specific period of his time. Thus, the study relied upon three direct approaches to secure information about the work and attitudes of the presidents: a questionnaire, an interview, and an activity log.

In addition to instruments involving the presidents directly, two indirect sources of information were used. The first source was a group of publications listing the characteristics of colleges and universities and the backgrounds of their presidents. A special form, completed for

each president, provided a consolidated record of data from these publications.

The second source of indirect information about the presidents was judgments of their over-all effectiveness. It was possible to locate ten persons in the State of New York, each of whom, as a consequence of his position, knew about the work of a large number of presidents in the State. These persons agreed to provide confidential ratings of the over-all effectiveness of each president with whose work they were acquainted. It was extremely important that the anonymity of these raters be preserved. Toward this objective the authors of the report planned the procedures for obtaining the ratings in such a manner that it could not be determined which rater had rated which president. The rating form consisted of a listing of the names of the presidents and their colleges, with a box for each in which the rater could enter a number from *one* to *nine* to indicate his judgment of the effectiveness of the president. A scale value of *nine* represented *highest effectiveness,* and a scale value of *one,* relatively *low effectiveness.*

This report contains a minimum of tables and statistics and utilizes only a part of the total amount of data amassed in the study.*

Procedures

In this section the procedures that were used to collect and analyze the data are described.

Constitution of the Population. The population of institutions of higher education in the State of New York includes two-year colleges, four-year and graduate colleges or universities; very large, as well as very small, institutions; and institutions governed by public, private, and sectarian bodies. It was necessary to decide arbitrarily in some cases whether a given institution should be included in the study or not. It was decided not to include the deans of colleges under state contract at Cornell University, the presidents of proprietary institutions, and the heads of institutions not directly under the aegis of the Board of Regents, for example, the United States Military Academy at West Point.

Development of the Questionnaire. A questionnaire was designed to secure informtaion by mail from each of the 206 presidents. To cover a broad range of issues and to minimize the time required of each

* A more detailed form of this paper (or extended version, or material supplementary to this article) has been deposited as Document number 9505 with the ADI Auxiliary Publications Project, Photoduplication Service, Library of Congress, Washington, D. C. 20540. A copy may be secured by citing the Document number and by remitting $30.00 for photoprints, or $8.25 for 35 mm. microfilm. Advance payment is required. Make checks or money orders payable to: Chief, Photoduplication Service, Library of Congress.

president, the questionnaire was constructed in a multiple-choice format. Questions were written, edited, and revised to produce a preliminary form of 110 items. This preliminary questionnaire was then field tested with the cooperation of a president of a New Jersey college.[1] The final forms contained 98 items in the following areas:

	Area	*Number of Items*
1.	Demands of the Position	11
2.	Allocation of Time Among Activities	18
3.	Relationships with Faculty	4
4.	Relationships with Administrative Staff	3
5.	Relationships with Alumni and Parents	2
6.	Pressures on the Institution	17
7.	Involvement with Financial Problems	2
8.	Relative Rank of Important Responsibilities	4
9.	Influence of the President on the Intsitution	2
10.	Attitudes toward Purposes, Academic Freedom, Tenure, and Effectiveness of the Faculty	4
11.	Academic Background	2
12.	Formal Training	6
13.	Administrative and Teaching Experience	3
14.	Prior Positions	2
15.	Roadblocks to Most Effective Job Performance	14
16.	Satisfactions of the Position	4

Since each of the 98 items in the questionnaire was in the form of a question for which several alternative answers were provided, the respondent had only to select one of the alternatives and record its number in a space at the left of the item. Space was also provided on each page for those who wished to enlarge upon their answers.

Prior to mailing the questionnaire, a letter was sent to each president from the Regents Advisory Committee on Educational Leadership which explained the purpose of the study and indicated that it was being sponsored by the Committee. The instructions for completing the questionnaire stressed that the responses to the items would be used only for the purposes of the study and then only in making general statements so that an individual's responses would not be disclosed.

One hundred ninety-four presidents, or 94 per cent of the population as constituted, either returned the questionnaire or were excused for valid reasons. These reasons included transfer of the college to another state and consideration for presidents who had been on the job only a very few days or were in very atypical situations. In all, 185 questionnaires were available for analysis. Two of these were excluded since they were completed by presidents of multiversities (for example,

[1] The authors express thanks to President Warren G. Hill of Trenton State College for his assistance and many valuable suggestions.

City University of New York) for whom many of the questions did not appear to be appropriate; two more were excluded because they were incomplete, and one because it was returned very late. Thus, the total sample included in the analysis consisted of 180 questionnaires, 87 per cent of those that were distributed, or 93 per cent of those constituting the relevant population.

Subgroups of the 180 presidents were established for analysis of the questionnaire data, as follows:

1. *Type of institution.* The responses of 59 presidents of two-year institutions were contrasted with those of 121 presidents who headed four-year and separate graduate institutions.
2. *Size of the institution.* This analysis compared the responses of presidents of 85 larger institutions (defined as those that enroll 1000 or more students) with responses of presidents of 95 smaller institutions.
3. *Type of Control.* Contrasts were made between responses of presidents of 54 publicly controlled institutions, 56 private institutions, and 70 sectarian institutions.
4. *Effectiveness of the President.* In this analysis comparisons were made between 107 presidents who received higher ratings on effectiveness with 73 presidents for whom the ratings were lower or for whom we had no rating. The presidents included in the higher rating categories for this analysis were those who had received an average rating above 5.0 on the nine-point scale. (see pages 24, 25, 26).
5. *Amount of teaching experience.* The responses of 91 presidents who reported that they had had ten years or more of teaching experience and the responses of 89 presidents who had had fewer than ten years were compared.
6. *Amount of administrative experience.* The responses of 88 presidents who reported that they had had 15 years or more of experience in administrative work were analyzed in relation to the responses of 92 presidents who reported fewer than 15 years.
7. *Work satisfaction.* In this analysis a contrast is provided between the 97 presidents who reported that they *very often* found their work to be highly satisfying or extremely rewarding and the 83 presidents who indicated that they found their work highly satisfying or extremely rewarding *frequently, occasionally,* or *seldom.*
8. *Educational influence relative to faculty.* This analysis contrasted the responses of 64 presidents who reported that they believed that "the president should exert a more definite influence than any other person upon what is taught in the college or uni-

versity" with those of 116 presidents who believed that "the president should contribute ideas on about the same level as other members of the faculty" or "should refrain from interference except in extreme cases."

9. *Involvement in fund raising.* A contrast is provided between the responses of 100 presidents who indicated that an essential part of their jobs was to be able to raise money for the institution and 80 who said that raising money was not an essential part of their job.

Interviews. As indicated earlier, 32 presidents were asked for their permission to be interviewed in depth. These presidents were selected from the total sample of 206 to provide a cross section of the total group. Sixteen of the 32 presidents had been rated as highly effective and 16 as less effective. In each of the two groups of 16, six presidents were from public, five from private, and five from sectarian institutions. Presidents from small, large, two-year, and four-year institutions were included. Interviews were conducted by the two authors of this report and four of their associates,[2] and in most cases were held in the president's office. Interviews were completed with the aid of a detailed interview schedule[3] which provided space for the interviewer to record notes, but the interviews were also recorded on tape so that as complete a record as possible could be obtained. Each president was assured that the recording would be kept confidential and used only for purposes of the research, and that permission would be secured in advance if it seemed desirable to quote him. In only one case was the interview not completed.

With the aid of the tape recording, the contents of the presidents' remarks were abstracted and organized item by item. These abstracted comments were then analyzed to note contrasts between the comments of the *more highly rated* presidents and those of the *less highly rated.*

Activity Log. In the course of the interview the president was asked if he would request his secretary to keep a log of his activities for the week following the interview. The log provided a ready means by which his secretary could record information in columns headed *Activity, With Whom,* and *Interruptions.* Logs were returned for 24 of the 31 presidents who were interviewed.

The logs were analyzed by classifying activities under meaningful categories and tabulating the amount of time spent on each of the categories. In this analysis attention was focused upon *persons in-*

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[2] Drs. T. Anne Cleary, Ronald L. Flaugher, Stephen P. Klein and Richard S. Melton.

[3] The authors express their thanks to President Eugene G. Wilkins of Newark State College for his assistance and suggestions in the development of the schedule.

volved in the activity, the *method of communication* used by the president, and the *content* of the activity.

Documentary Data. A search of documentary sources provides information about the presidents and their institutions. The data about the institution included the date it was founded, whether it was a private, public, or sectarian school, its major program, enrollment, admission standards, and accreditation. The data on the president included sex, date of appointment, age, undergraduate and graduate degrees, administrative experience, and membership in professional organizations. This information was useful in establishing the sample of presidents to be interviewed and in forming subgroups for the analysis of data obtained from the questionnaires and interviews.

Ratings of Effectiveness. Data about the overall effectiveness of college presidents were obtained from ratings made by persons who, because of their positions, were able to observe the work of a large number of presidents in the State. A fact of considerable importance in interpreting these ratings is that they were made by persons whose concerns with the colleges and their presidents covered many areas of education but who were not faculty members, members of boards of trustees, alumni, students, or members of the community in which the college was located.

The following table shows the number of ratings received for each of the 180 presidents included in the basic questionnaire analysis.

Number of Ratings	*Number of Presidents*
1	24
2	42
3	30
4	19
5	18
6	15
7	7
8	3
9	1
No rating received	21

In those cases where more than one rating was received, 60 per cent of the ratings given to a president were within one rating point of agreement and 84 per cent were within two points of agreement. This degree of agreement can also be expressed in terms of the Spearman-Brown extension of the intra-class correlation between the ratings. Reliability estimated in this manner is a moderately high .73.

The range in the distribution from the low rating of one through the high rating of nine is also satisfactory. The distribution is given below for the 530 ratings that were obtained.

Rating	*Number of Ratings Obtained*
9	23
8	84
7	103
6	105
5	82
4	57
3	34
2	23
1	19

This distribution is negatively skewed, indicating a disproportionate number of high ratings. The median ratings on the nine-point scale is approximately 6.0. This "halo effect" was anticipated by the authors.

To obtain a summary rating, the ratings received for each president were averaged. A president for whom only one rating was received was assigned the value of this rating. The distribution of these average ratings for the presidents is shown below.

Averaged Rating	*Number of Presidents*	
8.6-9.0	2	
8.1-8.5	3	
7.6-8.0	9	
7.1-7.5	11	Higher rated
6.6-7.0	27	N = 107
6.1-6.5	19	
5.6-6.0	24	
5.1-5.5	12	
4.6-5.0	11	
4.1-4.5	11	
3.6-4.0	14	
3.1-3.5	11	
2.6-3.0	2	Lower rated or
2.1-2.5	0	No rating
1.6-2.0	2	N = 73
1.1-1.5	0	
1.0	1	
No Rating Received	21	

The validity of these ratings can be gauged by determining the relationship between a president's rating and other data that might reasonably be expected to be related to his effectiveness. The result of such an analysis is shown below.

Site of Institution	*Percentage Receiving Ratings of 5.1 or Higher*	*Percentage Receiving Ratings of 5.0 or Lower*	*Percentage Receiving No Rating*
1000 students or more[a]	62	27	12
Fewer than 1000 students	57	31	12
Work Satisfaction			
Highest	59	34	7
Lowest	60	23	17
Administrative Experience			
15 years or more	67	25	8
Fewer than 15 years	52	33	15
Experience in Higher Education			
12 years or more	68	21	11
Fewer than 12 years	52	36	13
Teaching Experience			
10 years or more	63	25	12
Fewer than 10 years	56	33	11

[a] Rounding accounts for the failure of certain rows of this table to add to 100 per cent.

The data above show the expected relationship between experience and ratings of effectiveness. Presidents with the greater amount of experience in administration, teaching, and higher education tend to receive the higher ratings. The largest difference is between presidents with more or less experience in higher education. Also, presidents of larger institutions tend to receive higher ratings. The president's report of his satisfaction with his work does not seem to be significantly associated with his rating. These data and many subjective impressions obtained during interviews seem to support a general conclusion of reasonable validity of the ratings. Obviously, however, the job of a president is a very complex one, and a summary of a president's effectiveness in one rating is an oversimplification. A president might be very effective in several parts of his job yet be relatively ineffective in others. Effectiveness in the performance of different parts of the job was not examined in this study. Conclusions must, therefore, be tempered by an awareness that over-all judgments were made by a number of persons who were familiar with the work of the presidents.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The Position of the College President

The position of the college president is a complex and demanding one. Most incumbents testify that they find it difficult, if not impossible, to direct their efforts towards being most influential in the area where they perceive their greatest responsibility—*providing purpose and direction for their institutions.* Although they work a long and tiring week, they are forced to divide their time to attend to a multiplicity of functions and, as a consequence, they find their success diminished by relatively inconsequential problems. College presidents face the hard reality that leadership of their institutions, as well as leadership in higher education, could be taken away from them in their struggle to meet the problems, large and small, for which they have by tradition become responsible.

In this section many facets of the college president's life are examined: (1) the general demands his position makes upon him, (2) his specific duties and activities, (3) his working relationships with others, (4) forces that influence his work, and (5) how he perceives his role as president. The findings will be discussed according to differences in institutional characteristics, such as: (1) *type*, junior colleges (two-year) and four-year colleges and universities; (2) *size*, greater and fewer than 1000 students; and (3) *control*, governance by public, private, or sectarian bodies. These institutional differences account for much of the variability in the activities of presidents.

The Demands of the Position. The first and most easily documented fact about the position of the college president is that its demands on the incumbent are heavy. On the average, the president's work week is more than 60 hours. Typically, he spends 23 days each year away from campus on work related to the position and seven or eight additional days away on activities that he considers not related to his position. He makes about 16 addresses each year, spends 40 to 45 minutes each day on the telephone, and receives reports directly from five or six subordinate administrators. Any individual who wants to make an appointment to see him can expect to wait three or four days because of the president's full schedule. The heavy burden of the position is further reflected in the fact that the typical college president can find time each year for only two weeks of vacation.

The demands of the college presidency vary with the type of institu-

tion. Presidents of two-year colleges work a slightly shorter work week (57 hours) than presidents of four-year institutions (63 hours). Presidents of private institutions find their jobs more demanding of their time (65 hour week) than presidents of sectarian institutions (57 hour week). These heavier demands on presidents of four-year and private institutions are also revealed in other parts of their jobs. The typical president of a private institution reports that he spends more than 31 days each year away from campus on business related to his position. This compares with fewer than 20 days reported by presidents of both public and sectarian institutions. Similar differences exist with respect to the number of addresses the president makes (public, 16; private, 18; sectarian, 14), and the amount of time he spends on the telephone (public, 42; private, 45; sectarian, 38 minutes). Although presidents of private institutions tend to work harder, they also allow more time for recreation, if this can be inferred from the amount of time they take for vacation (private, 19; public, 12; sectarian, 13 days).

The size of the institution does not seem as important a factor as its type of governance in determining the demands of the position. The presidents of smaller institutions have almost as long a work week as presidents of larger ones. However, they spend somewhat less time away from their campuses on work related to their positions (small, 21 days; large, 24 days), and they give a slightly smaller number of addresses (small, 16; large, 19 addresses).

Three items on the questionnaire sought information about the president's view of the demands of his role on his personal freedom. "Does your position require that you be particularly careful about (1) how your dress, (2) what you say in informal conversations with friends and colleagues, and (3) how you conduct your social life?" Of all the presidents, 86 per cent said they had to be careful about how they dress, 84 per cent about how they conduct their social lives, and 78 per cent about what they say. Sectarian and private college presidents appear to be more concerned about the way they dress (90 per cent of the presidents of sectarian and 88 per cent of the presidents of private colleges answered "yes" in contrast with 80 per cent of the presidents of public colleges). However, public and sectarian college presidents more often than those of private colleges feel they must be careful about what they say and how they conduct their social lives. Presidents of 94 per cent of the public and 76 per cent of the sectarian in contrast with 66 per cent of the private colleges feel they must be careful about what they say; and presidents of 89 per cent of the public and 91 per cent of the sectarian in contrast with 68 per cent of the private colleges feel they must be careful about how they conduct their social lives. Junior college presidents, as compared with those of four-year

colleges, also perceived more pressure to conform by exercising care in what they say and how they conduct their social life (98 per cent and 90 per cent respectively for junior college presidents in contrast with 74 per cent and 80 per cent respectively for presidents of four-year colleges).

President's Activities. Why are the demands of the president's position so heavy? Part of the answer can be found in the multiplicity of the functions he perceives in his position and among which he allocates his time.

The study produced two sets of specific information about the activities of the college president: (1) responses to 10 questionnaire items, and (2) secretaries' logs of the presidents' activities. The data from the questionnaire are examined first.

Presidents answered a group of items describing their work in terms of the percentage of time they spend in each of 10 activities. Table 1 summarizes these data, showing the average amount of time that the 100 presidents reported they spend in each activity.

The data in Table 1 indicate that the single category of activities which claims the largest proportion of the time of the presidents is "Administrative planning with subordinates." This activity takes approximately 14 per cent of their time. The next most demanding activity is the administrative planning the president does alone. This accounts for another 10 per cent of his time. The time spent in these two categories of activities combined with that spent by the president in administrative planning with his board of trustees (approximately 4 per cent) accounts for more than one-quarter of his time. Other activities that are administrative in character include reviewing and analyzing reports on finances and operations (over 5 per cent), and authorizing expenditures (3 per cent). Altogether, these administrative activities make up about 36 per cent of the working time of the presidents.

Table 1

Time Spent in Each of 18 Categories of Activities by 180 Presidents of Colleges and Universities in the State of New York[a]

Activity	Percentage of Time Spent in the Activity: Average	No. of presidents reporting less than one per cent	No. of presidents reporting more than 15 per cent
A. Administration			
Administrative planning with board	4.1	36	1
Administrative planning alone	9.6	4	17
Administrative planning with subordinates	13.5	2	38
Reviewing and analyzing reports	5.5	29	6
Authorizing and approving expenditures	2.9	69	0
(Total, Administration)	35.6		
B. Internal Relations			
Working with faculty on curriculum	5.1	24	6
Meeting with students	3.6	45	5
Teaching	2.2	145	6
Counseling faculty on personal problems	3.1	62	0
Informal interaction with faculty	6.7	19	11
(Total, Internal Relations)	22.7		
C. External Relations			
Meeting with outsiders on college affairs	6.0	42	5
Meeting with outsiders on college related	3.6	38	0
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Preparation and delivery of speeches	3.0	24	1
Fund-raising activities	6.5	43	28
Official entertainment	3.0	11	2
(Total, External Relations)	31.0		
D. Individual Reflection and Scholarship			
Writing, study, and scholarly work	6.0	39	6
Private thought and reflection	3.5	27	0
(Total, Individual Reflection and Scholarship)	10.1		

[a] These average percentages were computed by weighting the midpoint of the range of each item option by the number of presidents who selected the option. It was assumed that a response given to the option, "20 per cent or more of my time" had a midpoint of 30 per cent. With this assumption the total amount of time devoted by the presidents to the 18 activities totals approximately 100 per cent. If the value of this option is assumed to be only slightly more than 20 per cent (e.g., 25 per cent) then the total amount of time devoted to these activities would be nearer 90 per cent.

Presidents spend less time (23 per cent) with students and faculty than in administration. These activities include meeting with students, working with the faculty on curriculum, counseling faculty members, and interacting informally. In their interaction with faculty members the presidents spend twice as much time conferring with them on their personal problems and interacting with them informally (about 10 per cent) as working with them on curriculum or instructional problems (about 5 per cent).

The time presidents devote to work with outsiders totals more than 32 per cent. These activities include correspondence, official entertainment, fund raising, and meeting with alumni, parents, community leaders, and professional groups. The president often must represent the interests of his institution in affairs with outsiders, and these activities take a major part of his time.

Despite the many demands of administration, of interaction with faculty and students, and of work with outsiders, presidents do find some time for both scholarly work and private thought and reflection. The analysis shows that these latter two categories of activities account for approximately 10 per cent of their time.

There is much variability among presidents in how they allocate their time among activities. It can be seen, for example (Table 1), that while 36 presidents (20 per cent of the total group) spent 1 per cent or less of their time in administrative planning with their boards of trustees, one president spends more than 15 per cent of his time in such planning. A more striking example is provided by the fact that 45 presidents (25 per cent of the total) spend less than 1 per cent of their time in fund-raising activities, while 26 presidents (14 per cent) spend more than 15 per cent of their time on this activity. This great variability makes it somewhat misleading to concentrate upon descriptions of the typical college president.

Major factors that might be expected to influence how presidents allocate their time are the characteristics of their institutions. Table 2 presents data for a group of such factors.

Perhaps the most significant observation about the data shown in Table 2 is the general similarity among institutions of all types in the proportion of the time presidents allocate to several of the 18 categories of activities. For example, the typical president of any type of institution spends 10 to 11 per cent of his time in administrative planning with subordinates. The larger differences deserve a closer look.

Administrative planning with members of the board seems to occupy more of the time of presidents of private institutions (4.3 per cent) and less of the time of presidents of public institutions (2.7 per cent). But presidents of public institutions (8.6 per cent) devote more time

Table 2

Time Spent in Each of 18 Categories of Activities—Median Percentages[a]

Activity	Type		Size		Control		
	2-Yr.	4-Yr.	Large	Small	Public	Private	Sectarian
A. Administration							
Administrative planning with board	3.7	3.2	3.8	3.0	2.7	4.3	3.4
Administrative planning alone	8.4	7.3	7.8	7.9	8.6	6.2	8.0
Administrative planning with subordinates	10.5	10.7	10.9	10.4	11.6	10.2	10.2
Reviewing and analyzing reports	3.5	4.1	4.4	3.6	5.1	4.2	3.4
Authorizing and approving expenditures	1.7	1.9	2.1	1.5	1.9	1.9	1.5
B. Internal Relations							
Working with faculty on curriculum	3.5	3.0	2.9	3.6	3.4	3.2	2.9
Meeting with students	2.5	3.0	2.9	3.1	2.5	3.4	3.0
Teaching	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0
Counseling faculty on personal problems	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.3	1.3	2.3
Informal interaction with faculty	4.9	4.4	4.7	4.7	4.9	4.3	4.6
C. External Relations							
Meeting with outsiders on college affairs	2.0	3.3	2.8	2.9	2.6	3.3	2.8
Meeting with outsiders not college related	2.1	2.4	3.0	1.8	3.4	2.1	1.6
Correspondence	4.6	5.5	5.3	5.4	5.1	7.2	4.8
Preparation and delivery of speeches	3.5	4.4	5.0	3.1	4.0	4.6	3.6
Fund-raising activities	.9	6.4	5.3	3.8	.7	10.3	3.4
Official Entertainment	1.2	3.5	4.3	1.6	2.6	4.7	1.8
D. Individual Reflection and Scholarship							
Writing, study, and scholarly work	3.0	4.1	3.1	4.1	3.2	3.8	4.0
Private thought and reflection	4.2	4.7	4.4	4.6	3.5	4.9	4.9

[a] The median percentages of time summed across all 18 activities do not account for 100 per cent of the president's time. This is because the distribution of time spent on each activity is skewed negatively, i.e., many presidents spend little time on each activity, and a few spend large amounts of time on a few activities. Medians computed from such data would not total 100 per cent.

to planning by themselves than private college presidents do (6.2 per cent). This fact, together with the previous observation that presidents of public institutions spend less time in planning with the board, may reflect a more central position of boards of private institutions in the work of the president. Time consumed in correspondence by the presidents of private institutions (7.2 per cent) appears to exceed that of others, especially the sectarian college presidents (4.8 per cent). Presidents of sectarian institutions also seem to be somewhat freer of duties and responsibilities associated with the details of administration, especially reviewing and analyzing reports of operations (sectarian, 3.4 per cent; public, 5.1 per cent; private, 4.2 per cent).

Table 3

Time Spent by 24 Presidents in Activities as Logged by the President's Secretary

Activity	Average Percentage of Time			
	All Presidents	Public	Private	Sectarian
	(N = 24)	(N = 10)	(N = 6)	(N = 8)
Persons Involved				
Outsiders	31.8	33.3	37.8	21.5
Board members	6.1	4.3	6.0	9.3
Students	4.0	3.8	3.3	5.5
Faculty	10.0	11.7	6.3	12.0
Administrative personnel	25.1	30.3	20.3	25.8
The president, alone	22.0	16.9	26.4	24.3
Communication Method				
Group meetings	46.2	46.6	48.1	43.7
Conference with one other individual	24.9	29.4	19.5	24.3
Speeches	1.3	.9	1.3	1.8
Telephone conversations	4.1	4.8	4.1	2.8
Writing	7.9	5.4	10.3	6.7
No communication	15.8	12.8	16.0	19.0
Problem Content				
Correspondence	11.0	9.3	12.7	11.9
Student problems	4.9	6.5	4.5	2.8
Fund raising	9.1	6.6	15.0	8.0
Curriculum problems	7.9	5.1	9.8	11.6
Faculty problems	5.9	7.2	5.1	4.7
Public relations	14.3	13.0	17.8	12.1
Finance	2.5	2.1	2.6	2.6
Travel	4.0	4.7	4.1	2.9
Administrative problems	28.4	30.4	19.9	27.1
Reading and reflection	5.9	5.8	5.5	5.2
Social and entertainment	6.3	7.4	5.3	6.5

Fund raising is the area in which the presidents of the different types of institutions differ most. The difference appears to be associated with the fact that presidents of private institutions (private, 10.3 per cent; public, .7 per cent; sectarian, 3.4 per cent) more frequently face critical problems related to raising funds. Associated with this difference, and perhaps a direct consequence of it, is the fact that presidents of private institutions also spend a considerably larger proportion of their time in official entertainment (private, 4.7 per cent; public, 2.6 per cent; sectarian, 1.8 per cent).

It should be noted again, however, that within each of the types of institutions presidents exhibit great variability with respect to how their time is spent. In each of the 18 categories of activity and within each type of institution the amount of time reported by presidents ranged at least from 1 to 12 per cent. The one exception to this general description of wide variability is that no president of a private institution reported that he spends more than 6 per cent of his time authorizing or approving expenditures.

The secretaries' accounts of the presidents' time are presented in Table 3.

Unlike the presidents' own accounts in Table 2, the data presented in Table 3 exclude their activities over the weekend because several of the secretaries were unable to report about the activities of their superiors on Saturdays and Sundays. Although the secretaries could infer how their superiors had spent time in the evening, from the load of work they faced the next morning and other indirect evidence, they were somewhat handicapped in reporting this time accurately. Thus, the two sets of data differ with respect to the period of work under observation. Moreover, different categories were used to classify the activities; nevertheless, some revealing comparisons are possible.

The two sets of data agree with respect to the proportion of time the president spends in administrative activities. If the times categorized in the above table under financial and administrative problems are combined, it can be seen that the secretaries logged 31 per cent of the presidents' activities in these categories. This compares with 36 per cent reported by the presidents themselves. The secretaries logged approximately 18 per cent of the presidents' time in work with students, curriculum, and faculty problems. On the questionnaire the presidents indicated that they spend about one-quarter (23 per cent) of their time in activities involving interaction with students and faculty.

Table 3 contains information that was not covered in the questionnaire, particularly with respect to the categories of activities under the heading of communication methods. These data indicate that the president spends almost half of his time in group meetings and another

quarter involved in conferences with single individuals. Presidents have only about one-fifth of their time to spend working alone and a good part of this goes into correspondence, in itself a form of interaction with others. It is clear that the president's job involves him frequently and extensively in work with others.

Working Relationship with Others. Since the presidents spend such a large proportion of their time in activities in association with others, it is important to look at such relationships closely, specifically the presidents' relationships with (1) faculty, (2) administrative staff, (3) board of trustees, (4) alumni, and (5) parents of students.

The president's opinion on how much influence he should exert upon teaching affects his relationship with the college faculty. Half of the presidents indicated on the questionnaire that they should contribute ideas in this area on about the same level as a member of the faculty, but about one-third (34 per cent) said that they should exert a more definite influence than any other person, and another 10 per cent said that they should refrain from any interference except in an extreme case. Clearly there exists no single point of view about this important relationship. The president's views about how much influence he should have upon what is taught are related to the characteristics of his institution. Presidents of two-year (44 per cent), smaller (42 per cent), and sectarian colleges (41 per cent) are more likely than other presidents to feel they should exercise more definite influence upon what is taught than any other person.

Traditionally, the chief occasion for formal interaction between the president and the faculty is the faculty meeting. About 45 per cent of the presidents report that they preside at faculty meetings one or more times per month, and about the same number conduct meetings several times a year; 5 per cent hold weekly meetings and 5 per cent hold annual meetings. Frequent meetings (one or more per month) are more characteristic of smaller (54 per cent) than of larger colleges (41 per cent). About two-thirds of the presidents share the responsibility for developing the agenda of faculty meetings with the members of the faculty, but 16 per cent do it alone and another 15 per cent leave it to the faculty. The president's assumption of the responsibility for this task is more common in the sectarian (20 per cent), and private (20 per cent), than public institutions (7 per cent).

Almost two-thirds (62 per cent) of the presidents report that they preside at all faculty meetings they attend, about one-third (30 per cent) preside on some occasions and the remainder (7 per cent) never preside. They are more apt to preside in sectarian institutions (69 per cent) than in public institutions (56 per cent). Ideally, interactions

between the president and the faculty should be "quite frequent," according to almost half the presidents. "Quite frequent" or "very frequent" interaction was advocated more often by presidents of smaller colleges (70 per cent) than larger colleges (58 per cent) and by presidents of sectarian (72 per cent) than private (65 per cent) or public (54 per cent) institutions.

The presidents' varying attitudes toward academic freedom are perhaps the most revealing of the differences related to institutional type. The most liberal alternative to the question: "What is your attitude toward 'academic freedom' . . ." was "Faculty members should have complete freedom to teach anything in their classrooms." This alternative was endorsed by ten per cent of the presidents. About 55 per cent preferred the alternative "There are some general but liberal limits to academic freedom which a president of a university or college must insist that each faculty member observes," and another 32 per cent preferred the alternative "'Academic freedom' is a misleading idea which would be better replaced with a concept of 'academic responsibility'." Only about 1 per cent could agree with "A faculty member has no academic freedom, but instead must subordinate his teaching to the achievement of the purposes of the institution."

The most liberal presidents—the 10 per cent who said faculty should have complete freedom to teach anything—are more likely to head four-year (14 per cent) and private (20 per cent) institutions. Those who insist on general but liberal limits on academic freedom are more likely to be presidents of the larger (66 per cent) and public (67 per cent) institutions. Those who would replace academic freedom with "academic responsibility" are more likely to head the smaller (11 per cent), the two-year (39 per cent), and the sectarian (40 per cent) institutions.

The majority of college presidents (61 per cent) are in agreement with the view that faculty members should achieve tenure after three to ten years of service. Eleven per cent preferred either a shorter or a longer period, and about 14 per cent preferred to make tenure contingent upon academic rank. Six per cent said a faculty member should never attain tenure. The differences of opinion among presidents regarding tenure appear to reflect the policy and problems of their institutions in recruiting, selecting, and holding faculty. Four-year college presidents (92 per cent) more frequently than those of two-year colleges (63 per cent) prefer that tenure be offered in three to ten years or in connection with academic rank. Presidents of larger colleges (71 per cent) are more likely to recommend tenure in three to ten years than presidents of smaller colleges (53 per cent).

What do presidents say about the balance between teaching and re-

search in judging the effectiveness of a faculty member? The great majority value teaching and research equally or consider teaching a little more important than research. Specifically, 53 per cent feel that teaching is more important than research, 40 per cent consider them equally important, 3 per cent consider only teaching to be important, and 1 per cent feel that research is more important than teaching. Institutional differences in emphasis on teaching are in the directions that one might expect. Presidents of the smaller (66 per cent), the two-year (83 per cent), and the sectarian (61 per cent) colleges are more inclined to stress the teaching end of the continuum.

One of the factors that is important in the president's relationship with the faculty is the clarity and understanding of institutional purposes and the extent to which these guide activities. In answer to the question "How well understood is the purpose of your institution?", 37 per cent of the presidents selected alternative (1) "We have specific and clearly stated purposes that are known by each member of the faculty and that serve to guide all our activities;" 59 per cent selected (2) "We have stated purposes that give general guidance to our activities;" and 3 per cent selected (3) "We have implicit purposes that are recognized but have not been clearly stated." The explicit statement of purposes and their total guidance function suggested by the first alternative is more often favored by presidents from the smaller (49 per cent), the two-year (47 per cent), and the sectarian (50 per cent) institutions. The more general guidance of stated purpose described in alternative two is more often favored by presidents of the larger (69 per cent), the four-year (62 per cent), the public (62 per cent), or the private (63 per cent) institutions.

The 31 presidents who were interviewed provided additional insights with respect to their problems in relating to the faculty. When asked how they worked with the faculty, the presidents most commonly mentioned faculty meetings and informal interaction. They indicated that they learned about the work of members of the faculty through formal communication with department chairmen, deans, and vice-presidents, as well as informally. Visiting classrooms appears to be a negligible source of information. The most common major problems that the faculty face, according to the presidents, are inadequate compensation and recognition for their work; a few presidents, however, mentioned physical facilities, teaching loads, problems of teaching, peer relations, and curriculum revisions as other major faculty problems.

President's relationships with the administrative staff. Few presidents fail to obtain a recommendation from a subordinate in seeking a solution to a major administrative problem. One-half of the presidents re-

ported that they *always* obtained such recommendations. As in so many other instances, institutional characteristics are associated with deviations from this norm. Those who *always* obtain recommendations are more likely to be presidents of the larger (59 per cent), the four-year (55 per cent), or the public (56 per cent) institutions.

Many of the presidents who were interviewed noted that they had found ideas suggested by their administrative staff extremely valuable, and stressed that they trust and rely on their administrative assistants. However, the reasons for getting ideas from members of their administrative staff are often not only for the value of the ideas, but also to encourage involvement in the selection of problems.

President's relationship with the board of trustees. A substantial majority of the presidents believe that they should take the initiative and lead the members of the board. To determine the presidents' perceptions of this relationship with their boards they were asked to check one of five alternatives describing how it could be best structured. Fifty-seven per cent chose the alternative (1) "He (the president) should take the initiative to lead the board in the directions he believes are most desirable"; 21 per cent preferred (2) "He should participate in work with the board on a level with the chairman"; 16 per cent selected (3) "He should serve the wishes of the board but make sure his views on issues are understood"; and 3 per cent checked (4) "He should use his influence solely to influence the board in desirable directions." Not a single president endorsed the alternative (5) "He should subordinate himself and his ideas to the wishes of the members of the board." Clearly most presidents believe that initiative and leadership should be in their hands. Presidents of public (61 per cent), and of private colleges and universities (59 per cent) were much more likely to choose the alternative implying strong initiative on the part of the president than were sectarian college presidents (46 per cent).

Presidents reported in interviews that preparation of the agenda for meetings was largely their responsibility or that they accomplished such work with an executive committee of the board. They described four different roles they play in the board meetings as the situation may demand: strong leader, regular member of the board, professional educator, and consultant with equal status.

President's relationship with alumni and parents. An item on the questionnaire reads, "Do you have regular and definitely organized contacts with the parents of the students?" Sixty-one per cent answered no; 37 per cent said yes. At first glance this item may not seem an important one, but closer examination reveals that it is highly related to the characteristics of the presidents' situations. Sectarian college presidents

(43 per cent) and presidents of private colleges (41 per cent) more frequently have contact with parents than public college presidents (26 per cent).

When asked about their influence on alumni affairs, 53 per cent of the presidents said they had a definite voice, 29 per cent said they had a small voice, and 16 per cent said they had no voice, or that there was no alumni activity. Presidents of the four-year (60 per cent), the private (57 per cent), and the sectarian colleges (57 per cent) are more likely to have a definite voice in alumni affairs than presidents of two-year (39 per cent) or public institutions (44 per cent).

Sources of Influence. One possible reason why presidents find it difficult to provide purpose and direction for higher education is that many organizations, community groups, and individuals which are affected by and concerned with colleges and universities exercise influence and exert pressure to bring about changes in their operations. This condition suggests either failure in the leadership of presidents or a recognition by society of the importance of higher education, or both. A set of questions was included in the questionnaire that asked the president to estimate the strength and the frequency of influence and pressure stemming from individuals or groups which had sought either successfully or unsuccessfully to bring about changes in the operation of the college or university. These data provide a view of the president's perception of the relative importance of pressures and influences upon the institution.

Table 4 summarizes the responses of the presidents to 17 sources of pressure or influence that were suggested by the questionnaire.

About one-fifth of the presidents reported some pressures from local newspapers. In the case of presidents of larger institutions and institutions that are publicly controlled the proportion is nearer to one-third. A similar pattern holds, though less markedly, for the source identified in the questionnaire as "members of the business or professional community that employ graduates."

As noted before, alumni represent a major source of influence for the presidents of all types of institutions, but particularly for the four-year, the private, and the sectarian college or university. Two-year institutions and public institutions less frequently have well-developed alumni groups from which such pressures might come.

As reported by their presidents there is a considerable difference between institutions with respect to the amount of influence exerted on them by government agencies and officials. As would be expected, publicly controlled institutions are most vulnerable. Agencies of the federal government are less often perceived as sources of pressure than are

Table 4

Pressures Upon the Institution as Reported by Presidents

Source	Percentage of Presidents Reporting Moderate or Strong Pressure						
	Type		Size		Control		
	2-Yr.	4-Yr.	Larger	Smaller	Public	Private	Sectarian
Social Action Groups							
Local newspaper (s)	20	20	32	9	35	16	11
Local labor organizations	8	15	15	8	15	15	7
Civil rights groups	5	10	23	4	24	19	6
Extremist groups	7	23	24	8	23	16	11
Related External Groups							
Employers of graduates	27	23	33	17	35	25	13
Alumni	19	40	37	40	26	43	45
Potential contributors	9	25	29	11	9	28	19
External Educational Organizations							
Secondary schools	25	29	27	29	37	24	18
Associations of institutions of higher learning	39	39	38	35	28	34	47
Accrediting organizations	60	63	62	61	63	59	69
Governmental Organizations							
Local government officials	49	15	33	15	13	19	9
Agencies of state government	63	50	66	63	70	63	60
Agencies of federal government	28	30	27	30	35	25	30
Special Interest Educational Groups							
Groups of faculty	62	63	71	55	73	59	57
Groups of students	37	37	60	42	46	34	33
Persons interested in curriculum revision	49	64	60	59	54	57	68
Persons interested in promoting research	28	55	50	57	57	50	42

agencies of state governments or local government officials. Special interest groups concerned with education and research (groups of faculty representing special interests, groups of students, persons interested in curriculum revision or promoting research) appear to be among the most important sources of pressure and influence for changes in all types of institutions.

One-third of the presidents reported that associations of institutions of higher learning exerted moderate or occasional pressure for change at their institutions. Presidents of sectarian colleges more often than other view associations of institutions of higher learning and accrediting organizations as influencing their colleges. About 70 per cent of the presidents of sectarian institutions reported that accrediting agencies were a moderate or occasional source of influence for change in their institutions, where as about one-half of the presidents of private institutions reported that they had no incidence of attempted influence from this source.

The influence of potential contributors to the support of the institution is more often a factor in the work of the presidents of the large, the private, and the four-year institutions than their counterparts. More than one-quarter of the presidents of private institutions reported moderate or occasional pressure from this source. As expected, agencies of the state government were much more frequently seen as sources of influence by presidents of public institutions than by presidents of either private or sectarian colleges.

In summary, the results of the analysis of influence and pressures support closely the observation that the president's job is one in which he must work with varied outside as well as inside forces. There are important differences between types of institutions with respect to the strength or frequency of the pressures and influences stemming from various sources. Presidents of public institutions are more likely to note pressures from accrediting agencies, local newspapers, and state and federal government agencies. Presidents of private colleges report more pressures from alumni, student groups, and potential contributors. Sectarian college presidents more often note the pressures of associations of institutions of higher learning, accrediting agencies, and persons interested in major curriculum revisions.

The President's Perception of His Role. The questionnaire included several items that asked the presidents about their views of their responsibilities and their achievements. One set of four items concerned the presidents' perception of the relative importance of five general areas of responsibilities, namely: (1) to stimulate and facilitate the work of the faculty, (2) to administer the affairs of the institution in

a businesslike manner. (3) to take initiative in shaping the purposes of the institution, (4) to provide a positive image of the institution among those outside of it, and (5) to secure funds and facilities to make the institution grow and prosper. A majority of the presidents (61 per cent) ranked taking initiative in shaping the purposes of the institution as first in importance. Most of the remaining presidents (20 per cent) considered their first responsibility to be "to stimulate and to facilitate the work of the faculty." These two alternatives suggest *educational leadership* as contrasted with the administrative flavor of the remaining three alternatives. These three together attracted less than 10 per cent of the presidents' choices as areas of the first order of importance.

The data from the questionnaire show differences among types of institutions concerning how their presidents regard the relative importance of the five areas of responsibilities. These data are presented graphically in Figure 1.

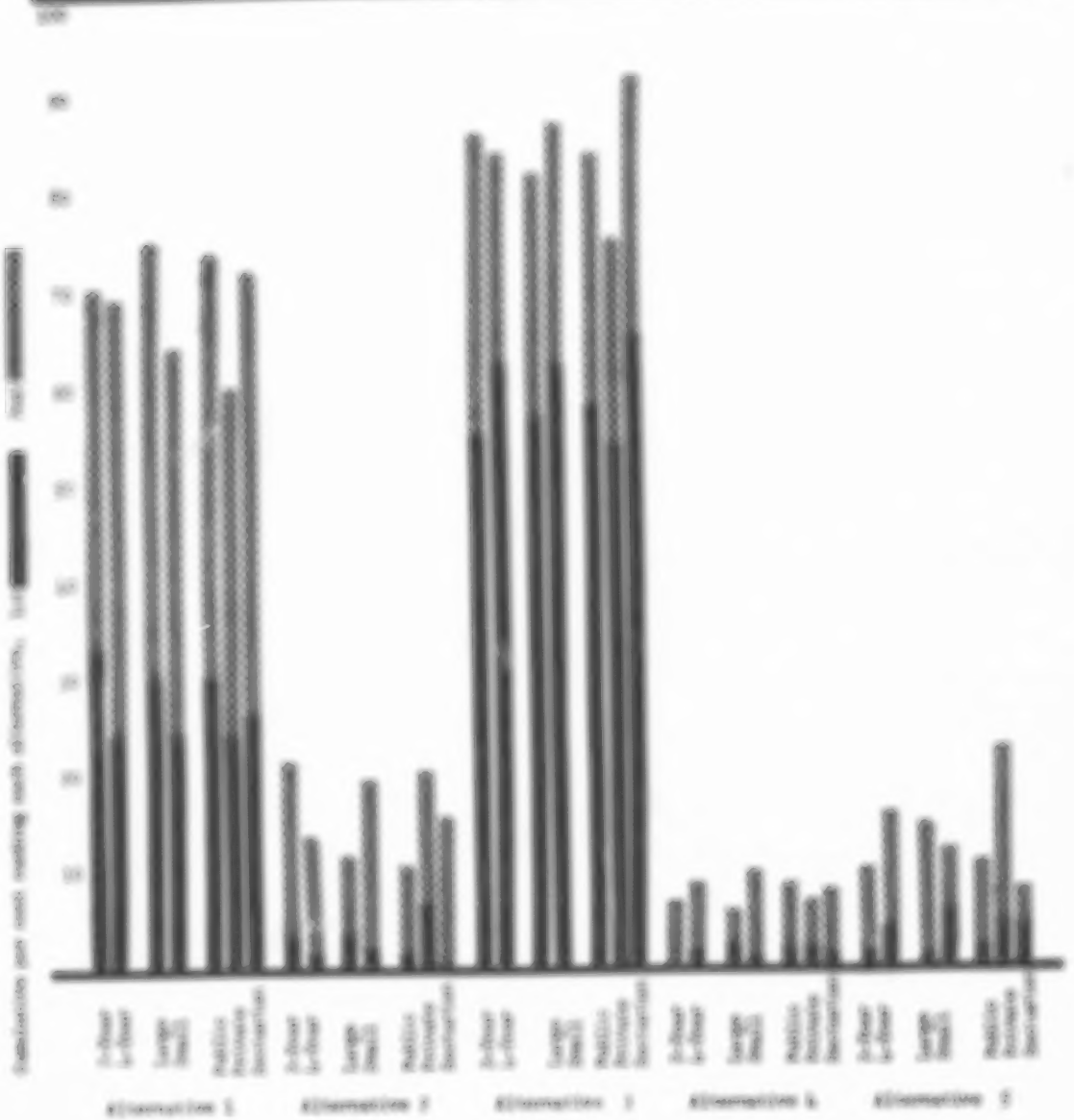
Most notable in Figure 1 is the previously mentioned tendency for presidents to rank educational leadership (responses 1 and 2) above administrative responsibilities (3, 4, and 5). Educational leadership accounts for the vast majority of first and second rankings. Presidents of private institutions rank educational leadership first or second less frequently than presidents of either public or sectarian institutions. On the other hand, a larger number of the presidents of private institutions attach great importance to their responsibility "to secure funds and facilities to make the institution grow and prosper." About one-quarter of the presidents of private institutions ranked this alternative either first or second, compared with about 10 per cent of the presidents of public and sectarian institutions.

The president's perception of the importance of his responsibilities provides a referent with which to compare his view of the area in which he exerts greatest influence. A direct question about the area of greatest influence presented six alternatives: (1) the physical growth of the institution, (2) the development of purpose and direction, (3) the development of the educational program and curriculum, (4) the development of the outside reputation or image of the institution, (5) the efficiency of the administration of the institution, and (6) the development of morale and positive self-image among the faculty. The president was asked to choose the one area in which he believed he had been most influential. This was apparently one of the most difficult items for presidents to answer: 21 per cent deviated from instructions and gave multiple answers, and another 6 per cent preferred not to answer at all. The pattern of responses of those who did answer, however, reveals a major discrepancy between the area of

Figure 1. Relative Rank of the Importance of Areas of Responsibility

Which of the following, in your view, ranks first (or second) in importance as a responsibility of the president of a college or university?

(1) To stimulate and facilitate the work of the faculty
(2) To administer the affairs of the institution in a businesslike manner
(3) To take initiative in shaping the purposes of the institution
(4) To provide a positive image of the institution among those outside of it
(5) To secure funds and facilities to make the institution grow and prosper



greatest responsibility and area of most influence. Whereas 61 per cent of the presidents viewed the area of their greatest responsibility as taking initiative in "shaping the purposes of the institution," only 29 per cent reported unequivocally that "the development of purpose and direction" was the area where their work had actually had the greatest influence.

The other areas of influence attracted the following responses: the development of the educational program and curriculum (34 per cent), physical growth (13 per cent), development of the outside reputation or image of the institution (7 per cent), development of morale and positive self-image among the faculty (7 per cent), and the efficiency of the administration (3 per cent).

Although the numbers of cases are small, the responses to an interview question about changes in their patterns of work with increasing experience in the position of president reflect similar conflicts between perceived responsibility and accomplishments. In general, the presidents reported that as time went on they found themselves giving more attention to affairs outside the institution as compared with internal affairs.

Background and Preparation

This section examines the career patterns of the presidents and raises the following questions: In what fields did the college presidents study as undergraduates? As graduates? From what positions did they move to the presidency? How much experience do they have in administration and teaching? What prior experiences and sources of assistance have they found most useful?

Academic Preparation. The most frequent undergraduate major for college presidents is in the field of the humanities (36 per cent). Less frequent are the social sciences (19 per cent), engineering (11 per cent), physical sciences (9 per cent), and education (8 per cent). The field of education leads in the number of presidents with graduate majors (20 per cent); humanities and social sciences are second and third (24 per cent and 14 per cent respectively). A number of presidents (13 per cent) marked the category "Other," and explained that they majored in theology, languages, or had multiple majors. The typical academic preparation for the president appears to have been the acquisition of a broad (liberal arts) background as an undergraduate, most often in the humanities or social sciences. As graduate students, the presidents often shifted their field of academic specialization to education.

The president's undergraduate and graduate major is related to the type of control of his institution. One main trend is that the presidents

of secular institutions are much more likely to have an undergraduate or a graduate major (or both) in the humanities (undergraduate, 69 per cent and graduate, 46 per cent). Education is the most frequent graduate major of presidents of the public colleges (33 per cent). Social sciences are more often the undergraduate majors of presidents of the public colleges (26 per cent) and of the private colleges (23 per cent) than of secular colleges (10 per cent). Presidents with undergraduate or graduate majors in engineering are much more likely to be heads of public colleges (21 per cent and 11 per cent) rather than secular (none), both as undergraduates and graduates.

With respect to size of institution, presidents of smaller colleges are more likely to have majored in humanities both as undergraduates (43 per cent as compared with 29 per cent of larger colleges) and graduates (31 per cent as compared with 16 per cent of larger colleges). Presidents of larger schools are more likely to have majored in social sciences, engineering, and physical sciences as undergraduates (30 per cent as compared with 21 per cent of smaller colleges) and graduates (26 per cent as compared with 14 per cent of smaller colleges). Junior college presidents are more likely to have been undergraduate physical science or engineering majors (31 per cent as compared with 14 per cent of four-year colleges) or graduate education majors (33 per cent as compared with 20 per cent of four-year colleges). Presidents of four-year colleges and universities are more likely than their counterparts in two-year institutions to have majored in the humanities and social sciences both as undergraduates and graduates (59 per cent and 43 per cent, respectively, compared with 43 per cent and 23 per cent for two-year institutions).

The fact that education is the most popular graduate field for college presidents sheds some light on the questions: Is the college presidency becoming a profession? Are presidencies being filled by persons who identify themselves as professional administrators of higher education? One characteristic of professionalism is the internship at the end of formal preparation which serves to develop the knowledge, skills, and attitudes associated with the duties and responsibilities of the incumbency. The beginning of such internships in higher education can be seen in the present group, since many have participated in in-service professional training: 16 per cent have attended the Institute for College and University Administrators at Harvard University; 14 per cent have attended conferences sponsored by the American Management Association; and 34 per cent have participated in summer workshops on problems of educational administration. Of those who have participated in these activities, most found them useful. In addition, 62 per cent said they obtained help, guidance, or inspiration

from reading a book or article on the job of the college president. There appears to be a definite trend for presidents and presidential aspirants to pursue formal as well as informal studies to prepare themselves professionally.

The results of the interviews support the notion of an emerging profession of administration in higher education. Of the 27 presidents who responded to a question concerning the value of reading and study in the field of administration, 23 answered affirmatively. Ten recommended graduate training, internships, workshops, and case studies in educational administration, but five presidents said no useful formal preparation for the presidency is possible.

Experience. Most college presidents have long years of experience in teaching or administration or both. About one-quarter of the 100 presidents could be categorized by each of four experience patterns: 25 per cent had *both* ten years or more teaching experience *and* 15 years or more *administrative* experience; 23 per cent had *neither* ten years of teaching experience nor 15 years of administrative experience; 27 per cent had ten years or more of teaching experience but fewer than 15 years of administrative experience; and 27 per cent had fewer than ten years of teaching experience but 15 or more years of administrative experience.

In this section the highlights of contrasts in responses of presidents to questionnaire items between more experienced (10 years or more) and less experienced *teachers*, and between more experienced (15 years or more) and less experienced *administrators* are sketched. Two types of comparisons are made: (1) *differences in responses associated with more, as compared with less, of each type of experience* (teaching and administration), and (2) *differences in responses associated with more teaching experience as compared with more administrative experience.*

The presidents with 15 or more years of experience in administration compared with those with less than 15 years of administrative experience, work a slightly longer week (62 vs. 59 hours per week) and spend more time off campus on work related to their position (27 vs. 20 days per year). Presidents who have more than 10 years of teaching experience in contrast with those with less than 10 years spend slightly more time off campus on work *not* related to the position (10 vs. eight days per year). More-experienced administrators as compared with less-experienced administrators tend to have more subordinates reporting to them (six vs. five). In preparing their correspondence, both those presidents with more administrative experience (15 years or more) and those with less teaching experience (10 years or less) as compared with the contrasting groups are more likely to dictate to a machine or a secretary (65 per cent vs. 52 per cent, and 66 per cent vs.

34 per cent), rather than divide their terms in longhand (9 per cent vs. 13 per cent, and 6 per cent vs. 19 per cent). More-experienced administrators are less likely than either less-experienced administrators or more-experienced teachers to consider opposition from trustees (more-experienced administrators, 16 per cent; less-experienced administrators, 31 per cent; and more-experienced teachers, 27 per cent), insufficient faculty (more-experienced administrators, 43 per cent; less-experienced administrators, 61 per cent; and more-experienced teachers, 57 per cent), and alumni (more-experienced administrators, 12 per cent; less-experienced administrators, 24 per cent; and more-experienced teachers, 22 per cent) as "contributing" to the effective performance of the jobs. A strong role with the board of trustees was more often advocated by presidents with more rather than less administrative experience (60 per cent vs. 34 per cent) and by presidents with less rather than more teaching experience (63 per cent vs. 32 per cent).

Those presidents with more teaching experience and those with less administrative experience are more likely to have majored in humanities as undergraduates (more-experienced teachers, 40 per cent, vs. less-experienced teachers, 31 per cent, and less-experienced administrators, 30 per cent, vs. more-experienced administrators, 20 per cent) and also as graduates (32 per cent vs. 17 per cent and 35 per cent vs. 18 per cent), while those less experienced in teaching and also those with more experience in administration more often have undergraduate majors in the sciences (39 per cent vs. 30 per cent and 41 per cent vs. 26 per cent) and also graduate majors in education (36 per cent vs. 20 per cent and 60 per cent vs. 38 per cent).

Experienced administrators were more likely than those with less experience to see themselves as being more influential in the physical growth of the institution (17 per cent vs. 9 per cent) and less likely as being more influential in the development of purpose and direction (23 per cent vs. 35 per cent). Presidents with more teaching experience in contrast to those with less teaching experience more frequently ranked "shaping the purposes of the institution" as their area of first responsibility (67 per cent vs. 54 per cent). The degree to which they are concerned with financial problems is also related to the presidents' prior experiences. Those with less teaching experience and those with more administrative experience more often view them "with little or no concern" or "of no greater concern than most others" (36 per cent vs. 17 per cent and 32 per cent vs. 22 per cent). In their relationships with faculty those presidents with less teaching experience in contrast with those with more teaching experience are likely to recommend a strong leadership role for themselves in what is taught (45 per cent vs. 26 per cent), and less likely to prefer a role of contributing

idea on the same level as a member of the faculty or refraining from interfering except in extreme cases (52 per cent vs. 68 per cent). Presidents with greater administrative experience when considering academic freedom tend more often than those with less to recommend complete freedom (17 per cent vs. 9 per cent); those with more teaching experience (36 per cent vs. 20 per cent) and those with less administrative experience (37 per cent vs. 27 per cent) more often agreed with the suggestion: "Academic freedom is a misleading idea which would be better replaced with a concept of academic responsibility." The liberalism of the experienced administrator toward faculty and the conservatism of the president with long years of teaching also extends to tenure policies. Experienced administrators (70 per cent vs. 53 per cent) and less-experienced teachers (72 per cent vs. 61 per cent) recommend few years of service (ten years or less); experienced teachers prefer many years of service or tenure associated with professorial rank (26 per cent vs. 12 per cent). A teaching rather than a research emphasis in judging the work of a faculty member is more often favored by presidents with less administrative experience (63 per cent vs. 49 per cent).

This sketch of the difference between presidents with more and less experience in teaching and administration can be summarized with a few generalizations. What seems to characterize the president who is more experienced in administration is his identification with the role of chief executive, his more businesslike attitudes, his more positive and definite leadership, and his relinquishment of the scholarly life of the university professor. Presidents with the larger number of years in teaching seem to retain attitudes, values, and work methods of the teacher and also to expect higher levels of performance by members of the faculty.

Further insights were gained with respect to the effects of educational and administrative experience from the presidents' responses to the interview questions on the value of these experiences. An early question in the interview was "What have been some of the major lessons for you from your experience on the job?" On no other question was there a larger variety of response. The only answers which had consensus of as many as two or three presidents concerned the selection of good assistants, the delegation of authority, the unexpected size and complexity of the job, and the rapid changes in the president's role with the passing years.

Presidents were also asked about some of their initial successes viewed in retrospect. The responses on this question showed more consensus than on the question about the major lessons from early experiences on the job. Most responses had to do with the organizational development of the institution. Presidents mentioned such accomplish-

memo as developing organizational charts, administrative planning, job descriptions for subordinate administrators, and opening lines of communication. They also mentioned successes in the development of the physical plant or in the acquisition of funds for new programs, and in strengthening of the relationships between the president and the students, the governing body and the faculty. Only two presidents mentioned development of the educational program as among their initial successes.

When asked what advice they might give new presidents, several of the presidents were unwilling to answer. They said it was impossible to give advice when so much depends on the nature of the situation. However, some presidents did offer advice. They mentioned such general ideas as the need to make a deliberate effort toward involvement in community affairs, the necessity for thorough analysis of problems, and the need to give subordinates responsibility.

The presidents described the useful sources of assistance and advice that they found during these early years. Mentioned more than any other group of persons were the members of the board. It seems worthwhile to note here the extreme differences in points of view the presidents had about the usefulness of their board members. Some presidents found that board members hampered their every move, interfered with the educational program, and disrupted relationships within the college. Other presidents described the many ways in which they were able to use the talents, the skills, and resources of individual board members to accomplish institutional objectives.

The presidents reported that they had changed their methods of work and allocation of time from the pattern developed in their beginning years on the job. A number mentioned more involvement in affairs outside the institution, and several found they were spending less time in fund raising and speech making. Several described shifts dictated by a particular period of institutional development, for example, from the development of new educational programs and curricula to a period of physical growth. Some presidents couched their responses in negative terms: less time for assessing the situation and working out guidelines, and less time for involvement in academic areas. Others, however, mentioned more time for implementing current programs, more concern with the public image and emerging areas of curricula, more time for planning facilities, and fund raising.

Association with fellow presidents is of some value, according to the majority of the presidents, but about one-third thought the value of such experience was not substantial. Several mentioned that through their associations with other presidents they had learned that their own problems were not unique. A number also mentioned that it was valu-

able to have knowledge of other points of view and different approaches to problems.

The presidents were about equally divided as to whether they had received useful advice from experienced managers or executives not associated with education. A few presidents said that they usually did not learn anything new from such consultants, but that consultants served a function by providing external support for what the presidents already believed, and that this helped convince colleagues. Some mentioned that they sought advice from outside consultants on non-academic matters only.

Administrative experience was the most common recommendation the presidents offered about desirable preparation for the position. Many of the presidents strongly endorsed experience in college administrative work for presidential aspirants. A number of presidents also mentioned special internships, workshops, case studies of accounting, and administrative planning. When asked specifically about the value of college teaching experience most of the presidents said it was extremely beneficial, and some said it was necessary for acceptance by the faculty.

Routes to the Presidency. In this section we examine the responses of the 180 presidents to two questions about their previous positions. The first question asked about the positions they held just before assuming their present position; the second concerned the positions they held just prior to the position from which they moved to the presidency. Approximately two-thirds of the 180 presidents entered their jobs from another college administrative position, one-quarter moved to the presidency from other administrative posts outside the field of higher education, and 6 per cent moved directly from a faculty position to the presidential role.

Table 5 shows the percentage of presidents responding to each of the ten alternatives to the question about their prior positions.

Slightly more than one-quarter (26 per cent) of presidents were deans immediately prior to assuming their present positions. This path tends to be more characteristic of presidents of the larger (32 per cent) and the publicly controlled institutions (43 per cent). The next most common (13 per cent) prior position of the presidents was a non-academic administrative position within a college.

Table 9

Percentage of Presidents Holding Each of Ten Categories of Immediately Prior Positions

Prior Position	Type			Size		Control		
	Total	2-Yr.	4-Yr.	Large	Small	Public	Priv.	Sec.
College president	6	5	10	11	6	4	18	4
Vice president	11	10	11	14	7	11	11	10
Dean	26	27	26	32	21	43	18	29
College administrator	13	14	12	11	15	15	11	14
Department chairman	9	7	11	8	11	7	15	9
Faculty member	6	5	6	2	8	2	4	10
School superintendent	6	12	3	5	7	4	4	10
Education department	2	5	1	4	1	6	0	1
Other education	8	8	9	7	11	6	9	11
Non-education	9	5	11	7	11	6	14	7
Blank	1	2	1	0	2	0	0	5

Eleven per cent of the 180 presidents moved to their present position from a vice-presidency. This step to the presidency is somewhat more characteristic of the larger (14 per cent) than the smaller (7 per cent) colleges. Non-education positions as stepping stones to the presidency are more characteristic of the four-year (11 per cent), the small (11 per cent), and the private (14 per cent) institutions than their counterparts (two-year, 5 per cent; larger, 7 per cent; public, 6 per cent; and sectarian, 7 per cent).

It is also revealing to examine the next previous step along the presidents' career routes. Figure 2 shows the pattern of the prior steps in the careers of all 180 presidents.

The number of dots on the lines connecting the bottom row of positions (two prior steps) with the upper row (one prior step) depicts the number of presidents who followed the route indicated by the arrows.

The primary observation is that there is no one route to the presidency that stands out strongly in comparison with others. No single route was used by more than 14 of the 180 presidents (College Administrator to Dean to President). Of the possible 100 two-step routes that could have been charted, 57 were used. Forty-three of the possible routes were never used since most would have been obvious retrogressions in what is normally recognized as career progress. For example, no one followed the route of Dean to Department Head to President. Other neglected routes are (1) certain of the routes that start with a college or university position and move to a position outside of the college or university environment (Department Chairman to State Education Department). (2) certain of the routes that are entirely

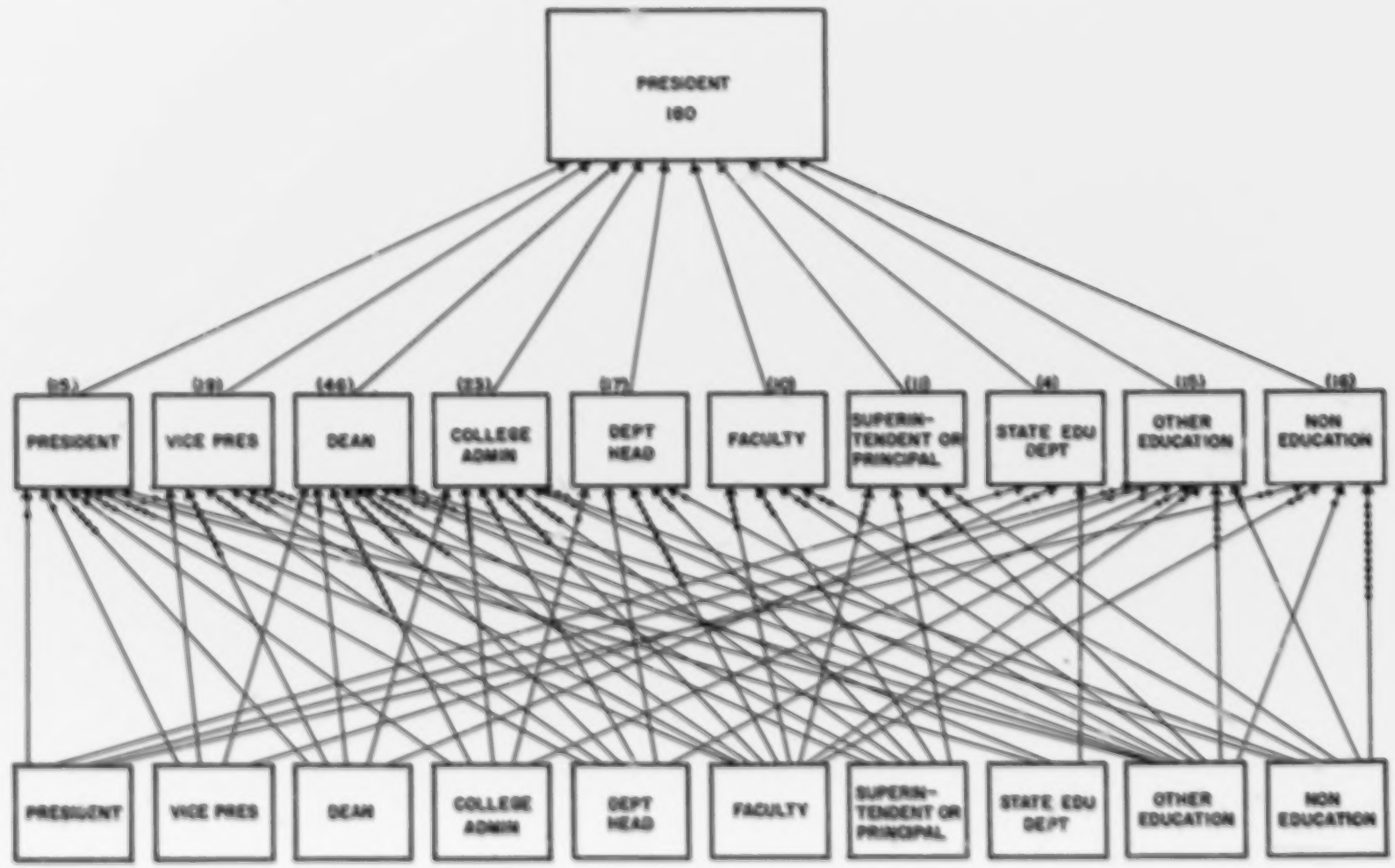


Figure 2. Career Patterns of All 180 Presidents

outside university positions, and (3) routes that start with either a position within the State Education Department or a non-educational position and move to a college position. There are only two routes that are entirely within the university or college setting which are not retrogressive and were not used: (1) College Administrator to Vice President, and (2) College Administrator to Faculty Member. College Administrators usually move to the position of Dean before becoming president.

Differences in the major patterns (defined arbitrarily as patterns used by five per cent or more of the presidents) to the presidency of two-year, as compared with four-year, colleges are shown below:

Two-Year College	per cent	*Four-Year College*	per cent
College administration to dean	12	Non-educational to non-educational	7
Faculty to superintendent	5	Faculty to dean	7
Other educational to other educational	5	Faculty to department chairman	7
		College administrator to dean	6

Differences with respect to the size of the institution are also notable.

Larger Colleges	per cent	*Smaller Colleges*	per cent
College administrator to dean	9	Faculty to department chairman	8
Faculty to dean	9	Non-educational to non-educational	8
Dean to vice president	7	College administrator to dean	6
		Faculty to administrator	6
		Other educational to other educational	6

The routes to the presidency are even more varied when the institutions, classifid by type of governance, are considered. Patterns involving five per cent or more of presidents are as follows:

Public Institutions	
College administrator to dean	19 per cent
Department chairman to dean	8 per cent
Faculty to dean	8 per cent
Dean to vice president	6 per cent
Private Institutions	
Non-related position to non-related position	12 per cent
Faculty to department chairman	8 per cent
College administrator to dean	7 per cent
Dean to president	5 per cent
Dean to vice president	5 per cent
Sectarian Institutions	
Other educational to other educational	9 per cent
Faculty to dean	9 per cent
Faculty to college administrator	7 per cent
Faculty to department chairman	7 per cent
Other educational to superintendent	6 per cent

Clearly, no one pattern of experience is characteristic of college presidents. They are recruited both from within and outside the field of education. They may have been associated with a college or university, or they may have gained experience in other educational organizations. Although the large majority (over 80 per cent) have held at least one of their two prior positions within the university and college community, a very large number (44 per cent) held one of their two prior positions away from a campus.

Effectiveness of College Presidents

Four major questions, each related to the effectiveness of college presidents, are examined in this section: What do college presidents regard as the most important "roadblock" preventing them from doing the job they would like to do? What factors relate to the satisfactions they obtain from the jobs? How do they maintain enthusiasm for their work? What characteristics are associated with judgments of their overall effectiveness?

Roadblocks to Effective Performance. Fourteen "roadblocks" were listed in a section of the questionnaire. The presidents were asked to indicate whether each was a major roadblock, minor roadblock, or not a roadblock at all for them. Their responses are summarized below:

Roadblock	Percentage Responding		
	Major	Minor	No Roadblock
Relationship with Outsiders			
Unfavorable press	2	18	79
Influential persons in community	3	16	81
State regulations	9	29	61
Activities of influential alumni	1	17	81
Administration			
Time taken by administrative detail	37	54	8
Opposition from the governing body	6	18	76
Lack of competent administrators	14	41	44
Faculty			
Insufficient faculty members	10	42	47
Lack of competence among faculty	5	41	53
Influential faculty or AAUP	4	19	76
Student			
Too many students	28	32	39
Poor quality among students	4	51	43
Student dissent	1	24	74
Student apathy	4	41	53

One of the most important findings of this study is that the roadblock checked far more frequently than any of the others was: "Time taken up by administrative detail (at the expense of more important matters)." Less than 10 per cent said that this factor did not interfere at all with their effectiveness; more than one-half said that it was a "minor roadblock," and more than one-third said it was "a major roadblock." More complete analysis of the data indicates that presidents of the four-year (40 per cent) and the larger (42 per cent) colleges were more likely to view time taken by administrative detail as a *major* roadblock than presidents of two-year (29 per cent) and smaller (32 per cent) colleges. Spending excessive time with administrative details may be related to "lack of competent administrative assistance." This roadblock was checked as a major or minor by more than half (55 per cent) of the presidents. Presidents critical of their administrative assistance were more likely to be in private (62 per cent) or public (56 per cent) than in sectarian (49 per cent) institutions.

Several roadblocks that were checked by about half the presidents as being either major or minor were educational rather than administrative in content. These included: "insufficient number of teaching faculty" (52 per cent), "lack of competence among the teaching faculty" (46 per cent), "too many students in relation to the physical facilities" (60 per cent), "student apathy or disinterest in college work" (44 per cent), and "lack of quality among students applying for admission" (56 per cent).

There are a number of complex relationships between types of institutions and their president's perceptions of roadblocks. Those presidents who regarded an *insufficient number of teaching faculty* as a roadblock are more likely to head sectarian (60 per cent), than either public (53 per cent) or private (41 per cent) colleges. Those presidents troubled by *too many students* were more likely to head the larger (75 per cent) and the public (85 per cent) institutions, rather than the smaller (56 per cent) or sectarian institutions (44 per cent). Presidents mentioning *student apathy* as a roadblock were likely to head the larger (52 per cent) and the public (55 per cent) institutions, rather than smaller (38 per cent) and private (38 per cent) or sectarian (42 per cent) institutions. Those concerned about the *lack of quality of students* applying for admission were more likely to head the two-year (70 per cent), the smaller (63 per cent), and the sectarian (67 per cent) colleges or universities than the four-year (48 per cent), the larger (48 per cent), the public (52 per cent), or private (45 per cent) institutions.

Relatively few of the presidents checked the other roadblocks listed: "unfavorable press reports or articles" (20 per cent), "opposition from a member or members of a governing body of the institution" (24 per cent), "activities of influential people living in the local community" (19 per cent), "state regulations and control" (38 per cent), "activities of influential alumni" (18 per cent), and "opposition from influential members of the faculty or AAUP" (23 per cent). However, when the presidents are classified according to the type of governance of their institutions, a number of important differences appear. Presidents of sectarian institutions tend more frequently than the other presidents to view opposition from a member or members of the governing body of the institution as an important roadblock (33 per cent). Twenty-six per cent of the public college presidents reported that *state regulations and control* were a major roadblock, and an additional 54 per cent noted that they were a minor roadblock (a total of 80 per cent). In sharp contrast, almost 80 per cent of the private and sectarian college presidents said that state regulations and control were *not* a roadblock at all.

In summary, from the president's point of view his most troublesome barrier to effective performance is his burden of administrative chores, largely attributable to a perceived lack of competence among his subordinate administrators. He also finds difficulty securing enough competent teaching faculty to meet the demands of an increasing student body. Although noted less frequently than either administrative chores or expanding student bodies, roadblocks in a third area may be potentially more significant. Almost one quarter (23 per cent) of the presi-

dents find opposition from some member or members of the board of trustees to be a roadblock. In public colleges particularly, a second form of control, state regulation, is frequently mentioned.

Satisfaction. An item on the questionnaire asked each president, "How frequently do you find your work highly satisfying or extremely rewarding?" More than half of them (97 out of 180) chose the most favorable alternative, "Very often" in responding to the question. The remainder distributed their choices among the alternatives "Frequently" (33 per cent), "Occasionally" (12 per cent), and "Seldom" (1 per cent). In this section the responses of the more-satisfied presidents—those who said they were very often satisfied—are contrasted with the responses of the less-satisfied presidents—those choosing the other alternatives.

Although presidents work very long hours each week, those who report more satisfaction from their jobs work longer (62 hours) in comparison with those less-satisfied (59 hours). The more-satisfied presidents also tend to spend more days off campus on business related to the college (35 per cent report they spend more than 30 days off campus) than those with less satisfaction (25 per cent report more than 30 days off campus). However, there is a slight tendency for the more-satisfied presidents to spend less time away from the campus in non-college affairs (35 per cent report more than 10 days) than the less-satisfied (43 per cent report more than 10 days).

Generally, the presidents in the two satisfaction groups allocated their time to the 18 job activities listed on the questionnaire in a similar manner. The small differences take the following pattern:

More-satisfied Presidents Spend More Time In:	*Less-satisfied Presidents Spend More Time In:*
1. Administrative planning by themselves	1. Administrative planning with a member or members of the board
2. Administrative planning with subordinate administrators (vice-presidents, deans, etc.)	2. Working with faculty members on curriculum or instructional matters
3. Meeting with laymen (community leaders, professional groups, etc.) on matters not directly related to college affairs	3. Meeting with students or student groups

More-satisfied Presidents Spend More Time In:	*Less-satisfied Presidents Spend More Time In:*
4. Correspondence with persons outside his college or university	4. Meetings with parents, alumni, and others not officially connected with the institution, but on matters related to college affairs
5. Reviewing and/or analyzing reports on finances or operation of the institution	5. Teaching
6. Authorizing and/or approving expenditures	6. Preparation and/or delivery of speeches or addresses
7. Private thought and reflection	7. Writing, study and other scholarly work
8. Counseling with members of the faculty regarding their personal or human relations problems	8. Activities directly related to raising money for the operation or development of the institution
9. Informal interaction with faculty or administrative staff	
10. Official entertainment	

This pattern of differences in time allocations suggests the hypothesis that the less-satisfied presidents spend more time on activities implying scholarly and professorial involvement, while more-satisfied presidents accept more completely the burden of administrative responsibilities. The more-satisfied president may find a detached appreciation of teaching and scholarly work more rewarding than direct competition in scholarly and academic circles. This hypothesis is supported by responses to other questions. When asked directly about the amount of time available to them for scholarly work, one-third of the less-satisfied presidents chose the alternative, "I have little or no time for such work and find this lack of time disagreeable," as compared with 18 per cent of the more-satisfied presidents. The latter group preferred the less intense wording of either the alternatives, "I have a moderate amount of time for scholarly work but would like more," or the alternative, "I regret that I have so little time for scholarly work." Also in support of the hypothesis is the fact that the more-satisfied presidents more frequently than the less-satisfied presidents reported some but not a large amount of teaching experience (47 per cent as compared with 29 per cent reported one to nine years). The less-satisfied group tended

more frequently to be characterized by no or by lengthy teaching experience (14 per cent as compared with 6 per cent had no experience in teaching, and 55 per cent as compared with 46 per cent had ten years or more). Teaching experience may be necessary so that the president will appreciate the problems of teaching and understand the value of scholarly work; however, an over-identification with teaching or scholarship may lead to dissatisfaction with administrative tasks.

It would be erroneous if the impression were left that the more-satisfied presidents were less concerned with the mainstream of higher education and its primary objectives, or that they had retreated to the limited role of efficient administrators. The more-satisfied presidents considered their most important responsibility the *taking of initiative in shaping purposes,* and more frequently than the less-satisfied group placed *stimulation and facilitation of the work of the faculty* as second in order of importance. A comparison of the responses of the two groups of presidents to the question asking them to rank five areas of responsibility in terms of relative importance is shown below. The table shows the percentages of presidents ranking the area as first or second in importance.

Areas of Responsibility	More-satisfied Group	Less-satisfied Group
1. To take initiative in shaping the purposes of the institution	85%	86%
2. To stimulate and facilitate the work of the faculty	74	65
3. To administer the affairs of the institution in a businesslike manner	20	12
4. To secure funds and facilities to make the institution grow and prosper	9	19
5. To provide a positive image of the institution among those outside of it	8	8

These data clearly do not suggest less concern for educational leadership on the part of the more-satisfied presidents. What is suggested is their greater attention to the efficient, businesslike administration of the institution, but not to the neglect of shaping purposes or stimulating and facilitating the work of the faculty. There is a trend, however, for the more-satisfied men to regard responsibility for securing funds and facilities as less important.

The more-satisfied presidents appear to have organized their work in ways which enable them to do their jobs more efficiently. They more frequently rejected suggestions of "roadblocks." As shown below, 12 of the 14 roadblocks were considered as "Not a roadblock at all" by larger proportions of more-satisfied, than of less-satisfied, presidents.

The only two roadblocks that the more-satisfied presidents reported

more often than the less-satisfied presidents were "too many students" and "state regulations." The roadblocks most clearly associated with lack of satisfaction of presidents are "opposition from the governing body," "lack of competence among faculty members," "student disinterest or apathy," and "lack of competent administrative assistants."

Possible Roadblock	Per Cent Responding "Not a Roadblock at All"	
	More-satisfied Presidents	Less-satisfied Presidents
Relationship with Outsiders		
Unfavorable press	87	77
Influential persons in the community	82	78
State regulations	59	64
Activities of alumni	84	77
Administration		
Time taken up by administrative detail	9	7
Opposition from the governing body	84	66
Lack of competent administrative assistants	49	37
Faculty		
Insufficient number of faculty	49	43
Lack of competence among faculty	61	45
Opposition from faculty or AAUP	78	72
Student		
Too many students	36	42
Lack of quality among students	47	39
Student disinterest or apathy	60	46
Student opposition or dissent	76	72

The more-satisfied presidents characteristically had longer administrative experience (17 years as compared with 12 years) and more experience in higher education (57 per cent have 12 or more years as compared with 36 per cent of the less-satisfied presidents). They handle their correspondence efficiently by using a dictating machine (28 per cent as compared with 10 per cent) rather than dictating to a secretary or writing in longhand, more common in the group with less satisfaction. They reported being able to introduce more new ideas each year (77 per cent as compared with 65 per cent introduce four or more new ideas each year). More of them shared with the faculty the development of the agenda for faculty meetings (70 per cent as compared with 58 per cent). They tended to feel they were able to secure much help from others with fund raising (48 per cent as compared with 35 per cent) rather than little help (9 per cent as compared with 18 per cent) and that they had a larger voice in alumni affairs (58 per cent as compared with 48 per cent reported a definite voice in alumni affairs). They more frequently considered the president's job *somewhat* or *in most respects* like that of the chief executive of a business (72

per cent as compared with 61 per cent) and believed that they should take the initiative in leading the board (63 per cent as compared with 51 per cent).

The more-satisfied presidents more often tend to regard the financial problems of their institutions as of "no greater importance than most others" (25 per cent as compared with 14 per cent) and not to consider them either as "of little or no concern for me" (1 per cent as compared with 5 per cent) or as their main concern (8 per cent as compared with 12 per cent). They also have a more liberal attitude toward academic freedom: 71 per cent of the more-satisfied as compared with 58 per cent of the less-satisfied presidents endorse either complete freedom or general, but liberal, limits.

There are differences between the two groups in their undergraduate and graduate educational preparation. The less-satisfied presidents were more likely to have majored as undergraduates or graduates in the humanities (45 per cent as undergraduates and 29 per cent as graduates, compared with 28 per cent and 21 per cent for the more-satisfied group). At the graduate level the more-satisfied presidents were more likely to have majored in professional education (37 per cent as compared with 17 per cent).

The general picture of the more-satisfied president which emerges from this analysis is one of confidence, effective relationships with others both inside and outside the institution, and efficient management of administrative duties.

One interviewed president, reflecting about the motivational conflicts facing a man in his position, summarized the pattern of these findings about job satisfaction. He observed that an individual who is dedicated to the purposes of higher education and who has proven to his own satisfaction, as well as that of others, that he can teach effectively and can make significant contributions in research or scholarship may find some administrative and leadership responsibilities pressed upon him. If he is able to discharge these additional responsibilities effectively, he realizes that if he were to devote more of his time and energies to them, his total contribution to higher education could become much greater. From that point on, his commitment to administration tends to become greater and greater, and he has less and less time for teaching and research work. With this background, although he may spend more and more of his time and effort in administrative work, he never loses the perspective that throughout his work, he is also serving the basic purposes of education—research and scholarship. Such a view may typify highly satisfied presidents.

Maintenance of Effectiveness. A final section of the interview schedule

dealt with "rejuvenation," the various ways by which a president renews his energy, keeps his enthusiasm for his work at a high pitch, and resists the temptation to adjust to the pressure of his position by reliance on routine. This section attempts to determine to what extent presidents experience the need for rejuvenation, what parts of the job become tiresome, what they do to refresh themselves and what suggestions they have for other presidents about rejuvenation.

All presidents reported they had experienced a need for rejuvenation. In addition to the need for relaxation to renew psychic and physical resources, they noted the necessity for reading, reflection, and detachment from day-to-day activities in order to achieve perspective. Four men reported that, although they had experienced a strong need for rejuvenation, they had not been able to find the time required for it.

Although not all of the presidents were able to identify the parts of their jobs that were most tiresome for them, "the long hours" and "the routine activities that do not contribute to the achievement of major objectives" were mentioned by several. Responses to this part of the interview reveal the range of activities which tire presidents. *Details of administration* were the most frequently mentioned tiresome aspects of the job. Slightly more than half found *meeting the public* tiresome. About half said *group meetings* were tiresome, but others complained about their *visibility, loneliness,* and *isolation* as decision makers. One man mentioned *reports* to federal, state, professional, and accrediting agencies; another mentioned the *lack of time* between major jobs and continuing demand of *social activities.* Still another mentioned handling *personnel problems,* which nearly always involve a conflict between human needs and orderly administration. One said there was too much of everything to be done; another missed his scholarly work. Several commented on the voluminous desk work, correspondence, public relations, rituals, and meeting with individuals with complaints.

Fund raising and public presentations were mentioned by many presidents as the one part of their job on which they spend the most time and energy. Others mentioned leadership and development, prodding and stimulating, developing and improving the total job, verbal communications with faculty, students, and administration, and obligatory meetings with individuals.

The presidents participate in a wide variety of sports and hobbies. Many presidents mentioned gardening, walking, and other outdoor activities, civic activities, and attending workshops. Others mentioned golf, spectator sports, and family contact.

When asked what suggestions they might have with respect to ways of rejuvenating, two presidents said that no standards for relaxation

could be set, since individuals vary. Two suggested a president's sabbatical or one semester away from the institution every three years, and one suggested a retreat in good company. Other suggestions included having a vital interest in the work as president, getting away for the summer, a three to four-week break, or involvement in an outside activity.

Correlates of Effectiveness Rating. The procedures that were used to obtain ratings of the presidents' over-all effectiveness have already been described in detail. Differences between the 107 *highly* rated presidents (High) and the 73 presidents who were rated *less* highly or whose work was unknown to the rater and thus were not rated (Low) will now be examined. Although it represents a bias, the inclusion of 21 presidents who received no ratings as a part of the Low group for this analysis involved the assumption that these presidents were more like the less highly rated presidents than the more highly rated. This assumption is supported in part by data shown earlier.

Table 6 below contrasts the High and Low groups in terms of a selected set of biographical and experience variables, many of which are obtainable in the process of selecting a new president.

Table 6
Biographical and Experience Variables and Relation to Over-all Effectiveness

Variable	High Group	Low Group
1. Sex; male	82%	81%
2. Teaching experience; 10 years or more	53	46
3. Teaching experience; 3 years or less	15	25
4. Administrative experience; 15 years or more	55	40
5. Administrative experience; 3 years or less	11	27
6. Experience in higher education; 10 years or more	69	53
7. Experience in higher education; 3 years or less	4	15
8. Experience as head of a department or dean in one of last two positions	51	35
9. Experience as faculty member on one of last two positions	50	29
10. Experience in a non-educational position in one of last two positions	5	27

The data shown in Table 6 make it clear that there are factors in the background and experience of college presidents that are related to the ratings of their over-all effectiveness. Experience in teaching, in administration, and in higher education appear to be important variables. Perhaps more significant than total years of experience in these areas is the nature of two positions just prior to becoming president.

Table 7 shows detailed information about the relationship between

prior positions and the ratings of the effectiveness of presidents. The ten categories that were presented as alternatives for the immediately prior and second prior position have been related to form the hundred possible joint categories. For each of these joint categories the number of presidents rated High is shown above, and the number rated Low below, the diagonal in Table 7. This arrangement provides a convenient means to examine these rather complex data. A ratio larger than *one* within any joint category suggests that the combination of prior experience thereby defined is positively related to the ratings of effectiveness. Ratios less than one indicate a negative relationship.

Table 7

Ratio of High Rated Presidents to Low Rated Presidents Classified by Their Two Prior Positions

Second Prior Position	First Prior Position											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	B	T
1 President	1/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	1/0	0/2	0/2	0/0	2/4
2 Vice President	0/1	0/2	1/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	1/0	0/0	0/0	2/3
3 Dean	3/1	7/0	0/2	1/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/2	0/0	0/0	0/0	11/5
4 Administrator	0/1	0/0	11/3	3/2	1/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	1/0	0/0	0/0	16/6
5 Dept. Head	2/0	3/1	5/2	2/1	2/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	2/0	0/0	0/1	16/5
6 Faculty	2/2	2/1	8/3	2/5	6/5	3/1	2/1	0/0	0/1	2/0	0/0	27/19
7 Superintendent	0/0	1/0	2/2	4/0	2/0	2/0	1/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	12/2
8 Educ. Agency	0/1	0/0	1/1	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	1/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	2/2
9 Other Educ.	1/0	1/1	2/2	1/0	1/0	1/1	3/2	0/0	3/3	0/1	0/1	13/11
10 Non-Educ.	0/0	0/0	1/0	0/2	0/0	0/2	0/2	0/0	0/2	2/9	0/0	3/17
Blank	0/0	0/0	1/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	1/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	2/0
Total	9/6	14/5	32/15	13/10	12/5	6/4	6/5	3/2	7/8	4/12	0/2	106/74

Among the more important negative sequences of experience are: (1) both the second and first prior position in non-educational work and (2) a second prior position as a faculty member followed by a non-academic college administrative position. If either one of his two prior

positions was as head of an academic department or as dean, the odds are much better that the president is among those rated as highly effective. Also, if the immediately prior position was that of principal or superintendent, the president is likely to be in the High group. Overall, 81 of the 107 presidents who were rated as most effective were either faculty members, department heads, or deans in at least one of their two prior positions. In contrast, only 39 of the 73 presidents in the Low group had experience in one of these positions as one of their two positions before becoming president. Presidents with experience not related to the field of education in either of their prior two positions are much less likely to be among the highly rated presidents and make up more than one-third of the Low group (29 of 73). Intimate contact with an involvement in higher education and academic administration are strong correlates of rated effectiveness as a college president.

Academic preparation also is slightly associated with ratings of effectiveness. The data in Table 8 summarize these differences.

Table 8
Undergraduate and Graduate Majors

	High Group	Low Group
Undergraduate Majors		
Humanities	37%	32%
Sciences	33	34
Fine Arts	0	3
Pre-professional (Engineering, Business, Education)	23	23
Other	6	7
Graduate Majors		
Humanities	26	22
Sciences	39	16
Fine Arts	1	0
Professional (Engineering, Business, Education)	33	32
Other	10	22
No graduate work	1	5

Most of the presidents (70 per cent) acquire an *undergraduate* background in the arts or sciences, but humanities majors are the only ones who receive even a slightly larger proportion of the higher ratings on over-all effectiveness. However, presidents with graduate majors in sciences (and to a small degree also in the humanities) are more likely to be rated highly effective. Undergraduate or graduate specialization in a professional field such as business, education, or engineering is not related one way or the other to ratings of effectiveness. Presidents with-

out graduate work or with graduate work in an unusual area (other) tend to be among those less highly rated.

There are differences between the highly rated presidents and the less highly rated presidents in how they perform their duties and their attitudes toward major educational issues.

The more highly rated presidents work a longer week (62 hours as compared with 59 hours for less highly rated presidents), but, perhaps more significantly, they spend considerably more time in work *off campus*. Highly rated presidents spend an average of 34 days per year in work off campus as compared with an average of 26 days for the less highly rated. The higher rated presidents more often reported that they have a voice in alumni affairs (87 per cent as compared with 75 per cent), and that they have regular and definitely organized contacts with parents of students (44 per cent as compared with 27 per cent). They more frequently perceive influence on their institutions from local government officials (29 per cent as compared with 16 per cent). In reporting about how they allocated their time among various activities, the highly rated presidents indicated that they spent more time than the less highly rated presidents in meeting with laymen, community leaders, professional groups, etc., on matters not directly related to the institution (41 per cent as compared with 20 per cent reported they spend 4 per cent or more of their time in these activities). They also reported that they give more addresses (17.6 as compared with 14.0) each year. The highly rated presidents are usually involved in fund raising (8 per cent as compared with 22 per cent reported they spent no time in fund-raising activities), but also tend to place financial matters in perspective by preferring to endorse the idea that "financial problems are of great concern to me but not as important as some others" (67 per cent as compared with 51 per cent). It appears clear that the higher rated presidents are more concerned with affairs outside their institutions than the less highly rated.

The higher rated presidents also appear more concerned with internal affairs of their institutions. They spend more time in planning with subordinate administrators (38 per cent of the High group as compared with 22 per cent of the Low group spend 12 per cent or more of their time in these activities). They tend to have more administrative subordinates reporting directly to them (38 per cent of the High group have seven or more as compared with 25 per cent of the Low group). They utilize efficient procedures in administrative work, they refrain from drafting letters in longhand (7 per cent of the High group draft letters in longhand as compared with 18 per cent of the Low group) and make more use of the telephone (44 minutes per day as compared with 39 minutes).

This greater internal concern extends to the faculty and educational problems. Highly rated presidents tend *not* to spend time counseling faculty members on personal problems (39 per cent as compared with 28 per cent spend less than 1 per cent of their time in this activity), but they are more concerned with the educational problems faced by members of the faculty. They more frequently report that they have had their greatest influence on the development of the educational program and curriculum (18 per cent as compared with 8 per cent). They more often recognize groups of faculty members representing special interests as influencing the institution (67 per cent as compared with 55 per cent). They also recognize the influence of students (56 per cent as compared with 42 per cent). They are more liberal in their attitudes toward academic freedom as indicated by their rejection of the concepts of "academic responsibility" or "no academic freedom" (28 per cent as compared with 41 per cent chose these alternatives). They indicate that purpose of the institution provides general rather then specific guidance (65 per cent as compared with 48 per cent endorsed the alternative, "We have stated purpose (s) that give general guidance to our activity," in preference to more specifically or less specifically stated alternatives).

In summary, there are distinctive background differences in experience and formal training between the highly rated and less highly rated presidents. There is also evidence that the more highly rated president is better able both to take initiative and to involve his associates in the solution of problems. Specifically, he tends to make use of opportunities to work with outsiders, to exert influence on what is taught, and to be concerned with efficient administration of internal affairs. He has a more liberal attitude toward academic freedom, and his influence on educational matters, although strong, appears to be focused upon general issues rather than specific problems.

Recruitment and Selection

The interview schedule was designed to elicit suggestions from the presidents about promising ways of recruiting and selecting outstanding people for the position. To focus their attention upon the strengths and weaknesses of various recruiting strategies, they were asked about how they themselves had been chosen for their present positions. While there was little unanimity to their answers to the question, "How were you selected?", it is enlightening to quote at length from the individual responses of the presidents because they demonstrate how varied the process has been in the past.

One president reported that his name and other names were solicited from the outgoing president; another said he was hard-pressed by the

board to accept the job; another pointed out that by virtue of his administrative experience in the institution he was the only obvious candidate at the time; another observed that he had been subjected to a test which amounted to an evaluation of his drinking sophistication; and another was appointed without his prior knowledge or consent. A president of a church-affiliated college was elected by members of her religious community. Another was elected by the board of trustees, while one president was chosen by the previous chairman of the board, and still another, by the board in cooperation with the faculty committee. Another president said that his predecessor died in office, and no one else wanted the job, but when it had been open for three years, his name was put forward by the students. One man initially refused an offer of the presidency because he felt he was too new in his present job, but when asked again after three years, he assented. Another man had been asked to assist the selection committee in its search for a president of his college; they liked him so well, they offered him the position. One president, who was in the process of considering a school superintendency in another state, was persuaded to stay in New York and accept a lower paying college presidency.

The presidents learned that they were candidates by letters, telegrams, and phone calls, mainly from trustees, although some first heard through the collegiate grapevine that they were under consideration. Most reacted favorably and with pleasure or at least surprise when they first learned they were being considered, but some were shocked and reluctant. Almost all were generally satisfied with their positions at the time, although more than half acknowledged that they were candidates for positions elsewhere. Most of the presidents knew of other candidates with whom they were in competition.

The presidents were about evenly divided in their responses to a question as to whether they had learned something new about the position during the recruiting process. Those that did gain additional information mentioned they had studied financial reports or reports made by the Middle States Association, had talked to friends in foundations, had reviewed college catalogues, or had talked to outsiders who knew the institution. About half had discussed the position with their predecessors. There was little agreement on who or what provided the most valuable information. Only a small number of the presidents believed that the selection process had permitted them to show their strengths for the position in a significant manner; five said that their strengths were already known; four indicated that the selection process did *not* permit them to show their strengths at all.

Again there was little agreement among the presidents interviewed on recommendations for improving the process of selection. Two said

the wife should be interviewed also, and two recommended simply that the trustees search widely. Specific suggestions included: the selection committee should be better prepared to question the candidate, the committee should avoid over-recruiting, direct appointment by superiors should not be made in religious communities, the retiring president should give long notice about his intentions, presidents should be selected from the academic world, and a faculty committee should always be involved. Other suggestions were: the candidate's physical health should be examined, the candidate should be brought to the college long before his predecessor leaves so that he might have the opportunity to learn about the college, persons responsible for the selection should be given time and should be patient, an interview by a smaller committee should be used to provide a screening for the full board, the selection committee should carefully specify the type of person desired, the recommendations of the American Council on Education[6] should be followed, and the advice of outside experts, especially those from the state office of education, should be sought.

When questioned about the roles of various persons and groups in the process of selection, the presidents seemed to agree that a large number of them should be consulted. As one would expect, all of the presidents recognized that the board must be involved, but several recommended that the board appoint a selection committee to screen candidates. While the final decision about a candidate should be made by the board of trustees, most of the presidents noted that the advice from interested laymen, the incumbent, alumni, and faculty would be useful for at least two reasons: first, they felt that if such persons were involved in the process they would have warmer feelings toward the new man; and, secondly, if it was found that any one of these persons or groups objected strongly to any candidate the trustees should be very cautious about employing him. Several presidents said that the incumbent could serve a useful role in the selection of the successor by suggesting names and by clarifying the institutional objectives. All the presidents agreed that the faculty should be involved, but there was uncertainty about exactly what they should do. One man suggested that the final choice not be one that would be opposed by the faculty; another said that the faculty should not make or greatly influence the final decision. Other presidents said that the faculty might both suggest names and be represented on the final selection committee.

The presidents were about evenly split with regard to the usefulness of a management consultant. Two presidents believed that a manage-

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[6] Frederick deW. Bolman, *How College Presidents are Chosen*, The American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1965.

ment consultant could suggest qualities of desirable candidates in the area of finance and business.

The qualifications for presidents mentioned most often were administrative experience, and college teaching experience. Five presidents said that the qualities required depend on the stage of development of the college. Several of the presidents mentioned executive and human relations abilities and a doctoral degree as important. At least two presidents mentioned abilities in fund raising and public relations, demonstrated leadership ability in an educational or professional organization, and the achievement of academic status. Personal qualities most often mentioned were scholarship, physical energy, health, leadership talent, flexibility, open-mindedness, interest in education, sense of humor, and the ability to combat frustration.

According to several of the presidents interviewed, candidates with the necessary personal qualities, experience, and abilities might be present most often within the administrative circle of the institution itself or of another institution. The presidents were more divided, however, with regard to the question of the relative desirability of internal candidates versus external candidates. Eight presidents said that internal candidates should be looked at first, but five disagreed. Two presidents said that external candidates are best; one said that only external candidates should be considered. Also mentioned were such sources as the professional field of education, religious orders controlling the institution, and administrators from states which have good community colleges. Two presidents specifically commented on the failure of placement agencies to be of value.

There was little unanimity concerning the number of candidates that should be considered in the process. The answers ranged from "one at a time" to an unlimited number. However, one frequently recommended procedure was to shorten the list by the application of a carefully prepared set of criteria before making a final selection. Presidents recommended such selection processes as weighing a variety of opinions, finding out why the candidate is interested in the position, examining the motivation of the nominators, and trying the candidate out in an advisory task.

Most of the presidents reacted negatively or indifferently to publicizing the search. Several suggested that an announcement of the incumbent's intention to retire was sufficient.

Summary

The results of this study clearly show that the presidents of colleges and universities in New York State accept leadership as their first responsibility, but, their reports of their activities, accomplishments, and

roadblocks leave serious doubts about their ability and their opportunity to meet this great responsibility. Many facts have been identified in the study which, taken together, lead to the general conclusion that the performance of their leadership roles as presidents of institutions of higher education in the State of New York needs to be, and can be, strengthened.

The results of the study were organized and reported under four broad headings. The first section, entitled The Position of the President, presented an account of the demands of the position, the sources of influence upon him, and his perception of his role. The second section, Background and Preparation, analyzed the academic preparation of the presidents, examined the effects of educational and administrative experience, and traced the career routes to the presidency. The third section, Effectiveness of College Presidents, dealt with the roadblocks the presidents encounter, the characteristics of highly satisfied presidents, the ways in which presidents renew their emotional, intellectual, and physical resources to maintain effectiveness, and the characteristics of those who were rated as being highly effective in their role. The fourth section, Recruitment and Selection, examined the manner in which the presidents were selected, and how the presidents feel these practices could be improved.

With respect to the position of the president, the results of the study document the common observation that the demands on him are heavy, involving him in a multiplicity of functions and subjecting him to pressures and influences from many sources, both inside and outside his institution. Presidents are subjected to many pressures that not only result in conformity in personal behavior but also influence how they perceive and respond to the exigencies of the role.

The fact that 61 per cent of the presidents indicated that "to take initiative in shaping the purposes of the institution" is their most important responsibility can be viewed as evidence of the president's recognition of his leadership responsibility. An additional 21 per cent felt that "to stimulate and facilitate the work of the faculty" is first in *importance*. These choices imply educational leadership in contrast with image making, fund raising, or administration. However, presidents much less often (29 per cent) reported "the development of purpose and direction" as their greatest area of *accomplishment*. Physical growth, image making, and efficient administration were more frequently reported. This discrepancy between perceived accomplishment and recognized responsibility is clearly one of the most important facts documented by the study.

Concerning the background and preparation of presidents, the most frequent undergraduate majors of the presidents were in the humani-

ties, followed by social sciences, engineering, physical sciences, and education. In graduate work the most frequent majors were education, humanities, and social sciences. Many presidents have participated in in-service training programs for college presidents sponsored by Harvard University, the American Management Association, or other groups, and generally find these activities useful. During the interviews, many presidents commented favorably on internships for the development of talented college administrators. The findings seem to indicate the beginning of professional preparation for the presidency, and a recognition of its desirability.

Most of the presidents held administrative positions in higher education immediately before becoming president, but more than a third held other positions, either as faculty members, as school superintendents, in state education departments, or outside the field of education.

Greater administrative experience, especially in higher education, is associated with higher effectiveness and more satisfaction in the role of president. Greater teaching experience leads to higher effectiveness but, if extensive (more than 10 years), to less job satisfaction. Presidents with much teaching experience appear to retain an identification with teaching and regret they have so little time for scholarship. Experienced administrators are usually more liberal, while experienced teachers are generally more conservative in their views on such matters as tenure and academic freedom. Presidents with greater administrative experience appear to have developed skills in handling administrative duties efficiently, to have accepted a strong leadership role in dealing with trustees, and to have recognized the need for greater contact with outsiders, alumni, and parents of students.

The presidents were asked to indicate to what extent each of 14 "roadblocks" had interfered with their effectiveness. Many of the presidents had encountered educational roadblocks, such as lack of competence and insufficient numbers of teaching faculty and the higher number but poor quality and apathy of students in college. It is significant that one quarter of the college presidents perceived one or more members of their board of trustees as a roadblock. The incidence and type of roadblocks as perceived by the president were highly related to the type of control of his institution. Presidents of public institutions, for example, noted state regulation as a roadblock much more frequently than other presidents.

To various degrees, all presidents interviewed felt the need for relaxation and the renewal of their intellectual, emotional, and physical resources. Although there was great variety in the things that deplete their reserves, "long hours," "routine activities that do not contribute

to the achievement of major objectives," and "human relations problems" were mentioned by several.

With respect to recruitment and selection, while the presidents found some strengths in the process through which they had been recruited and selected, many noted that the process seemed haphazard, inefficient and unsystematic. Presidents learned of their candidacy by letters, telegrams, and phone calls, mainly from trustees, although several first heard through the college grapevine. Most, but not all, were pleased to learn they were being considered, though most were also well satisfied with their positions at the time. Many presidents learned little in the process about the position they were considering and noted that the board of trustees learned little about them.

The presidents were in some agreement that in the process of selection a large number of persons and groups should be involved. Although it was recognized that the final decision should be made by the board of trustees it was felt that if interested laymen, the incumbent, alumni, and faculty had some part in the selection process, they would probably have a warmer feeling toward the new man.

The qualifications for the presidency most often mentioned were administrative experience and college teaching experience. Other qualities, including physical energy, health, leadership talent, flexibility, open-mindedness, sense of humor, and the ability to combat frustration, were mentioned. Presidents were divided in their opinions about the relative desirability of considering internal as well as external candidates.